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THE SOUTHWESTERN SOCIAL SCIENCE QUARTERLY

Vol. XXX

DECEMBER, 1949

No. 3

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Office of Publication: 111 South Peters, Norman, Oklahoma

Entered as second-class matter at the post office at Norman, Oklahoma, under act of March 3, 1879. Published quarterly.

The *Southwestern Social Science Quarterly* is the official organ of the Southwestern Social Science Association. The subscription price is three dollars a year or one dollar a copy to members; four dollars a year to non-members. Subscriptions to the *Quarterly* may be addressed to the office of publication, to the editor, Oliver Benson, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma, or to George T. Walker, Secretary-Treasurer of the Association, Northwestern State College, Natchitoches, Louisiana. All manuscripts should be addressed to Oliver Benson, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma. Books for review should be sent to H. Malcolm Macdonald, Book Review Editor, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

The Southwestern Social Science Quarterly

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Classification of Farms in the Southwest

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Despite marked physical and cultural diversity in the Southwest, its farms may be classified according to shape and size, falling into six broad categories.¹ The Southwest, for the purposes of this study, is comprised of: Arizona, Colorado, New Mexico, and Utah. The region is about as complex in its natural and cultural features as any other portion of the United States. If the farms in the area, therefore, can be successfully classified, it would appear that the system herein employed might be extended to other regions.

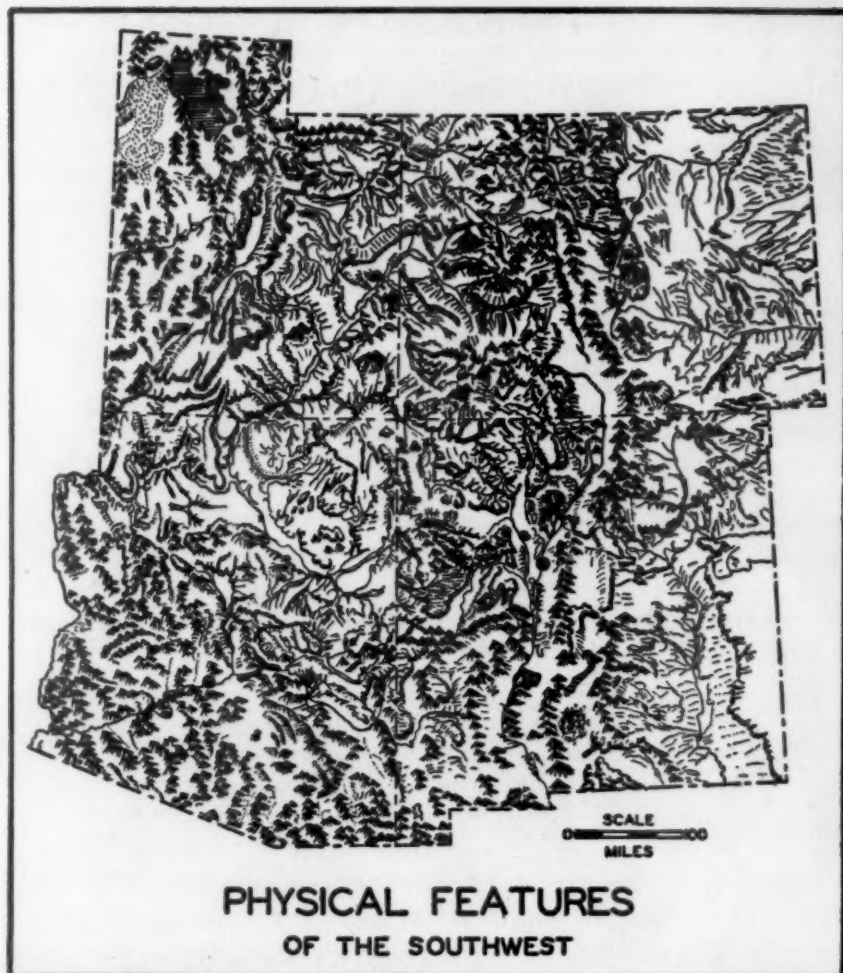
This classification utilizes readily understandable criteria of boundary shape and of total areal extent, as determined on an individual farm. It recognizes six types, or classes, of farms; these were discovered by field study and by examination of large-scale maps. After the types are ascertained, the farm pattern is described.

Physiographic diversity characterizes the Southwestern States. Comparison of its four physical divisions—Great Plains, Rocky Mountains, Colorado Plateaus, Basin and Range—reveals large scale features and sharp relief, and also monotonously level plains, plateaus, and peneplain surfaces.² (See Map 1) Similarly, variation extends to climax vegetation associations which include tall, mixed, and short grassland; deciduous, montane, and subalpine forest; tundra; sagebrush; and desert scrub. Other natural features likewise display diverse character within the region.

Cultural adaptations which influence land division are many because there are Indians, Spaniards, and Americans in the area. Within each of these groups of inhabitants further complications have developed as a

¹Winslow, D. C., "Classification of Agricultural Land Patterns in the Southwest," *Paper*, Geography Section, Southwestern Social Science Association, 1948, p. 1

²Winslow, D. C., "Geographical Implications of Soil Conservation Districts in the Southwest," *Abstract of Dissertation*, Clark University Bulletin, Worcester, Massachusetts, 1948, p. 33.



Map. 1. Note the divers features of the region

result of laws, customs, mores, and folkways that help shape the land holdings. The Hopi, Navajo, and Tewa Indian; the Galician, Basque, Castilian, and Mexican Spaniard; the Mormon, Texan, and Missourian; all of these had their own ideas concerning suitable land division and boundary establishment. The United States Government agencies, and Spanish, Mexican, and Mormon authorities followed their own modes of land allotment.

Farms and ranches of this Southwestern region can be grouped into six comprehensive categories. They are: (1) Rectangular, (2) Elongated rectangular, (3) Irregular, (4) Massive, (5) Non-contiguous, (6) Miscellaneous.

Rectangular farms are, more or less, square in shape and are typical of rural areas where Congressional Townships and their subdivisions were laid out by the United States Government surveys. The regular land unit is designated a section and is one mile square. It contains 640 acres. Further division of the section usually results in retention of the rectangular shape, the tracts frequently being of 160 or 40 acres. Half sections of 320 acres are placed in this category although they are somewhat elongated in their shape. Homesteads and other lands alienated from the United States, present Federal holdings, state property, farms and ranches in the Great Plains, and some irrigated areas are divided into rectangular blocks.

Elongated rectangular formation of farms, *i. e.* with the length considerably greater than the width, largely was brought about where surface irrigation is practiced. Here, a source of water must be available and access to a route of transportation provided, in which case an oblong shape usually is necessary. In the fields, long runs for the water are desired so as to facilitate applications. Relegation of irrigation ditches and roads to the boundary lines is preferable. Even with further subdivision of an individual property, these factors remain paramount and the shape is retained.

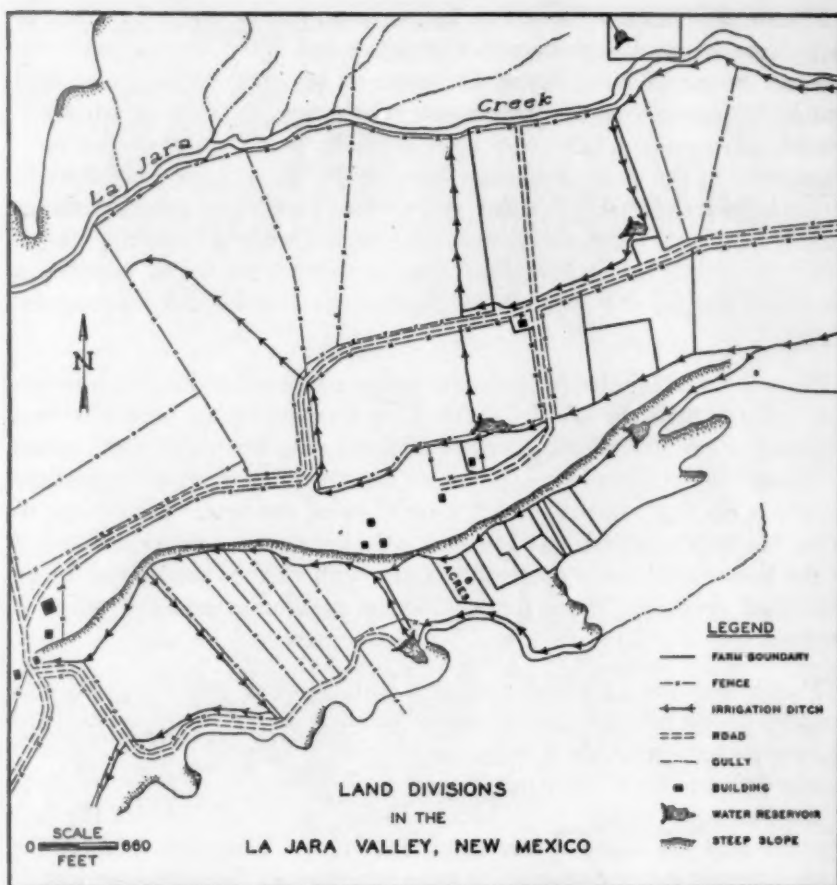
Throughout the Central Valley of Utah, farms of this elongated rectangular design predominate because of the irrigation economy. This type of rural pattern particularly is conspicuous in the Central Valley of Utah.³ Noteworthy, as well, is the persistence of the elongated rectangular shape in the Poajoque Valley, New Mexico, where it prevails despite the fact that the land has changed ownership and is now being operated by the three different cultural groups: "Anglo-Americans", "Spanish Americans", Indians.⁴

Settlers on public lands often found it desirable to claim portions of two sections rather than the entire square section. In this way they acquired the most fertile lands or those pieces where water conditions were favorable. Also, such an elongated rectangular shape might allow more ready access to highway or railroad.

Irregular-shaped farms, which comprise the third category, are found wherever the old "metes and bounds" system is used, being readily identified by their peculiar overall shapes and large number of sides. Prom-

³Geddes, J. A., and Fredrickson, C. D., "Utah Housing in Its Group and Community Aspects," *Bulletin No. 321*, Agricultural Experiment Station, Logan, Utah, 1945, p. 66.

⁴Winslow, D. C., "Application of Land Use Capability Data by a Soil Conservation District on Two New Mexico Farms," *Southwestern Social Science Quarterly*, March, 1947, p. 385.



Map 2. *Irregular boundaries dominate here. Note 6-acre plot which illustrates the small size of individual farms.*

inent physical features, trees, and rock monuments serve as landmarks for boundary points which are connected with one another by straight lines. Boundaries, also, may follow streams, irrigation ditches, and topographic breaks. Some farms are multi-sided and others have only three sides, but for convenience usually they are more or less rectangular. Such land unit divisions are general in early Spanish settlements and Crown Grants, in some Indian reservations, and in particular areas of rough terrain. Throughout the La Jara Valley, New Mexico, this irregular pattern is general. Lands with ragged boundaries ordinarily are characterized by small area, although occasionally they are large in extent.

Privately and publically owned agricultural holdings, whose great size tends to dominate over shape in human relationships, are classified in the massive category. For example, the Ortiz Mine Grant, situated

northeast of Albuquerque, New Mexico, embraces 56,000 acres. Its huge extent obviously would lead to conditions where shape has little influence on land management. Individually operated farm units, therefore, which exceed 2,500 acres and form one contiguous block of territory, are grouped in the massive class.

Much publically-owned land is in large holdings. The National Parks, National Forests, Land Utilization areas, General Land Office holdings, Taylor Grazing lands, and Indian Service property are in this class. State parks, game preserves, and other holdings, as well, may be massive.

Farms, comprised of a number of non-contiguous pieces, are a common type in the region. Ranchers frequently possess pasture in a dry basin for winter grazing and lambing; obtain, under lease or permit, Government-administered mountain pastures for summer range; and own a small piedmont tract which yields garden produce, grain, fodder, and forage, and possibly serves as headquarters and place of residence for the owner. Land was often apportioned, in the early days, so as to provide each family with a unit that was suitable for irrigation, for dry land farming, and for pasture. Separate plots were thought advantageous as they gave protection against total loss from a natural disaster. Inheritance leads to acquisition or alienation of bits of land. Man and wife often own their own plots which are exploited together. A Spanish-American may highly prize a diminutive piece of cropland because it regularly produces enough wheat for flour to meet domestic needs. Forest clearings and bits of land in the mountains sometimes form additional portions of a farm located at lower elevations.

The miscellaneous category includes all other shapes of farms which are usually in a transitional stage before stabilization is reached in the form of one of the above described types. Some of these farm units, displaying unusual boundary shape, are haphazardly formed by division of property among heirs, by alienation of a portion of a farm through public or private acquisition, and by natural causes, as the shifting of a stream. Excessive land division, brought about through property settlement provisions, is the cause usually ascribed to most of these freakish developments. A large farm near Mora in New Mexico has been split apart so often, for illustration, to meet inheritance rights that one of the resulting farms is now more than two miles long and only ten feet wide. Evidently, such an attenuated piece must revert to a more satisfactory shape for profitable exploitation.

Some farms, although they are in the miscellaneous category, have a rather stable status. These were appropriated to provide water for grazing animals, giving the owner access to additional Federal and State grazing lands thereabouts. With the recent trend, moreover, towards

living on small farms while working elsewhere, there has evolved the so-called "supplementary income farm," providing only a portion of the family income. Some of these holdings may continue indefinitely in their present size. Nevertheless, a farm unit, which must provide a livelihood to its owners and is devoted chiefly to agricultural purposes, tends to remain but a short time in this class before becoming amalgamated with other units to constitute a profitable entity.

Let us now evaluate the classification by a geographic description of one subregion in the Southwest, the Rio Grande Valley. Let us determine whether such specific definition proves helpful in an understanding of the individual form pattern.

Extending from its origin above the San Luis Valley in Colorado to its mouth, the Rio Grande is bordered by tiny communities which are in favorable situations where irrigation is feasible from underground and surface sources. Farms, in and about the small rural agglomerations of the river valley, are elongated-rectangular or irregular in shape, although some of them are composed of non-contiguous plots. Adjoining the cropland tracts and lying adjacent to the rural settlements are dry land farms and ranches, which are usually rectangular. A few massive-sized properties near the river have such extensive area that their very size obscures the boundary form. Some farms have shapes of a miscellaneous nature; these are observed along streams and transportation routes, and on outskirts of towns. Of course, a few cities, located on the river, locally lend an urban aspect with heterogeneous shapes. Broadly viewed, nonetheless, the picturesque Rio Grande Valley presents a pattern of homogeneous aspect with its elongated-rectangular, irrigated farms and with its rectangular dry land farming and grazing holdings.

This scheme of farm and ranch classification utilizes self-explanatory terminology. It requires, furthermore, only a brief description and possibly an example to clarify its nomenclature. This comprehensive system of classifying land holdings could probably be used successfully in the scientific study of other portions of the United States or of the world.

The President's Mediation Commission and the Arizona Copper Strike, 1917

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When, at its Annual Convention of 1916, the Western Federation of Miners changed its name to the International Union of Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers, the Federation took its final step in the repudiation of radical unionism in favor of "respectability." President Moyer and his followers probably felt that they had had enough persecution as radicals. The declared syndicalist aims of the Federation had brought it only a series of violent "dubious" battles and had rendered it ineffectual in obtaining concrete gains for its members. Violence was, to be sure, a characteristic of the frontier society in which the Federation had its greatest concentration of membership, but the alienation of public opinion by a cry of "radical" had contributed to a series of defeats that threatened the existence of the union.¹

The affiliation of the Western Federation of Miners with the Industrial Workers of the World had appeared to compound the difficulties of the Federation. After helping to establish the I. W. W. and granting it significant financial support² the W. F. M. had engaged in a strike in Goldfield, Nevada, during the period November, 1907, to January, 1908. Even the support of county officials had proved insufficient when the union refused to enter into contracts governing working conditions for any specified time. Although there had been no violence in Goldfield, troops had been called out with the purpose of breaking the Federation.³

Because of the defeat at Goldfield, many miners had resigned from the Federation. To regain the miners' support, union officials had then appealed to management to bargain collectively in order to obtain more favorable conditions of employment for miners. This trend toward conservative unionism had contributed to an ever widening break with the I. W. W. The final schism occurred on May 9, 1911, when the Federation rejoined the A. F. of L. after a separation which had lasted fifteen years.⁴ By 1912 the annual convention of the W. F. M. had adopted a

¹For an excellent narrative of some of the more costly strikes of the Federation see Benjamin M. Rastall, *The Labor History of the Cripple Creek District: A Study in Industrial Evolution*, Madison, University of Wisconsin, 1906.

²Paul F. Brissenden, *The I. W. W.: A Study of American Syndicalism*, New York, 1919, pp. 70, 74, and 104-05.

³House Document No. 607, 60th Congress, 1st session, pp. 20-26.

⁴Selig Perlman and Philip Taft, *History of Labor in the United States, 1896-1932* (John R. Commons and Associates, Vol. 4), New York, 1935, p. 254.

policy of entering into time agreements. Just two years later the I. W. W. was already sending organizers to Jerome, Arizona, to break the ranks of the W. F. M.⁵

When the depression of 1907 hit the Arizona copper industry, the Federation had turned to politics with early successes in contributing to the election of a governor and numerous county officials friendly to labor.⁶ The war brought an end to the depression. Rising prices increased the Federation's pressure on the copper industry for higher wages. Probably in anticipation of open conflict an anti-union coalition defeated all pro-union officials in the election of 1916. Governor Hunt, who was pro-union, lost to Thomas Campbell in a close vote.⁷ The International Union of Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers turned again to economic weapons by intensive organization of workers and by calling a number of strikes starting soon after the election and culminating in the great strike of June, 1917.⁸

The I. W. W., through its Metal Mine Workers' Industrial Union, Local No. 800, had also been successful in organizing large groups of workers, especially in Bisbee, Arizona. This success was probably a result of the dissatisfaction of radical miners with the conservative trend of Moyer's union.⁹

A strike at Jerome, Arizona, preceded the general strike by one month. Despite rising copper prices, the United Verde Copper Company ordered a wage reduction of 25c a day.¹⁰ Negotiations between the International and the Company conducted by John McBride of the Conciliation Service were of no avail. The I. W. W. took no part in the negotiations despite a rather large membership in Jerome.¹¹

The "general" strike began at the call of the International on June 26 in the Warren District of Arizona, and quickly spread through almost the entire industry in the state, including areas controlled by the I. W. W.

⁵Paul F. Brissenden, *The I. W. W.*, New York, 1919, pp. 318-319.

⁶Robert F. Bruere, "Following the Trail of the I. W. W.," reprint of the *New York Evening Post*, 1918.

⁷This election was later reversed by the Arizona Supreme Court.

⁸*Miners' Magazine*, January, February, and March, 1917.

⁹Perlman and Taft, *History of Labor*, p. 398.

¹⁰The Federal Government was, at that time, negotiating with the industries to bring down the price of copper which had risen from 11¼ cents a pound in November, 1914, to 36¼ cents in March, 1917.

¹¹*Miners' Magazine*, June, 1917.

unions.¹² The immediate causes of the strike varied in the different areas, but were largely the result of accumulated grievances of the workers for which no machinery for adjustment was available.¹³ The objectives of the International, as stated in its *Miner's Magazine*, were:

- (1) recognition of the International's grievance committee by the companies;
- (2) right to organize on company property;
- (3) reinstatement of workers discharged for reasons other than incompetence; and
- (4) equal representation on boards controlling company hospitals.¹⁴

The immediate aims of the I. W. W. were not clearly expressed. The President's Mediation Commission analyzed the basic grievances of the workers as their lack of representation in determining conditions of employment and the "uncritical opinion of the men that all wars are capitalistic and therefore that ours must be such, (an attitude) encouraged by the heavy profits of the copper companies resulting from the European war before our entrance into it."¹⁵

The reaction of management, some local officials, and the conservative press, was to brand the strike as a pro-German plot to disrupt the war effort.¹⁶ Robert F. Bruere quoted Walter Douglas, President of the Phelps Dodge Corporation, as saying, "We will not compromise with rattlesnakes; this goes for the International, the A. F. of L. organization, as well as for the I. W. W."¹⁷

The arming of large numbers of deputies by sheriffs reflected the attitude of anti-union county officials. The *Santa Fe New Mexican* of July 3, 1917, reported that 100 deputies had been armed with clubs and guns.

¹²It has been estimated that 90% of the workers in the Clifton District and 30-40% of those in the Globe-Miami Districts were members of the International. The remaining areas such as Bisbee were left to I. W. W. organizers. Louis B. Wehle, "Labor Problems in the United States During the War", in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 32 (1917): 369.

¹³Report of the President's Mediation Commission to the President of the United States (Washington, 1918), p. 6.

¹⁴August, 1918.

¹⁵Report of the President's Mediation Commission, p. 6.

¹⁶New York Times, June 29 and 30, 1917, and Santa Fe New Mexican, July 2, 1917.

¹⁷Bruere, *Following the Trail of the I. W. W.*, p. 7. Similar sentiments were expressed by Mr. Douglas in a telegram addressed to his assistant. A copy of that telegram is among the private papers of Secretary of Labor Wilson in the National Archives.

The first act of deportation occurred in Jerome, where an attempt to unite the International and the Metal Miners Union in the strike failed. Here members of the I. W. W. were arrested and shipped in cattle cars to Needles, California. Since they were not permitted to detrain, the posse let them out at Kingman, Arizona.¹⁸

The Jerome incident was the forerunner of the wholesale deportation at Bisbee. Sheriff Harry Wheeler of Cochise County sent a telegram to Governor Campbell stating, "The I. W. W. strike here (in Bisbee) is most serious and I anticipate great loss and bloodshed. Majority strikers seem foreign. The whole thing appears pro-German and anti-American. I earnestly request you use your influence to have United States troops sent here to take charge of the situation and prevent bloodshed and the closing of this great copper industry now so valuable to the United States Government."¹⁹

Governor Campbell requested that the Secretary of War investigate conditions in Bisbee. Although two investigations were made by the army, the officer in charge of them reported that there were no evidences of violence and "that troops were neither needed nor warranted under existing conditions."²⁰

After Sheriff Wheeler failed to get troops into the area, a meeting was held on July 11, attended by the sheriff and managers and officers of the Phelps-Dodge Corporation, largest copper producers in Arizona, at which deportation of strikers was planned.²¹ Early the next morning 2000 deputies rounded up about 1190 strikers and herded them into 24 freight cars. The train was barred from California and was finally sidetracked at Hermanas, just inside the New Mexico border, where the strikers were locked into the cars with inadequate food and water in a blistering heat.²² After 60 hours on the train, the deportees were detrained and brought to Columbus, New Mexico, under the protection and care of the United States Army.²³ At that point the Federal Government became directly con-

¹⁸*Santa Fe New Mexican*, July 10, 1917; Alexander M. Bing, *Wartime Strikes and Their Adjustment*, New York, 1921, p. 266.

¹⁹Bruere, *Following the Trail of the I. W. W.*, p. 13.

²⁰*Report on the Bisbee Deportations made by the President's Mediation Commission to the President of the United States*, (Washington, 1918), p. 4

²¹*Ibid.*, p. 5

²²*Ibid.*; *Santa Fe New Mexican*, July 12, and 13, 1917; *Solidarity*, July 28, 1917. For an unusual description of the deportation and the "Kangeroo Court" set up to deport other strikers found in the area, see copy of letter by the President of the El Paso and Southwestern Railroad to his New York office among Secretary of Labor Wilson's private papers in the National Archives.

²³*Santa Fe New Mexican*, July 14, 1917.

cerned with consequences of the strike. The I. W. W. probably doubted that the White House would take action when it questioned "whether the President . . . has sufficient historical perspective to take advantage of the greatest opportunity in his career to do something at home for the 'democracy' he is asking men to die for abroad."²⁴

A. F. of L. President Gompers acted quickly in giving the President his views on the deportations and the strike which tied up 28% of the country's much needed supply of copper. President Wilson, in turn, referred the problem to Secretary of War Baker, Chairman of the Council of National Defense.²⁵ At about the same time George W. Bell, member of the State Commission of Immigration and Housing of California, acting as representative of all the Governors of the Far West, suggested to the Council that:

- (1) members of the I. W. W. be interned for the duration of the war;
- (2) a national censorship be established relative to all information on I. W. W. activities;
- (3) "the Department of Justice or the Department of War, as a war measure . . . request employers who are threatened with strikes to remedy, during the period of the war, all conditions . . . that may give pretext for the usual agitation. This would be more effective than attempts to recognize and conciliate with an organization that does not desire conciliation, and that does not feel bound by any contract or agreement under an economic, or employing, system that is contrary to their fundamental theories of industry and society."²⁶

The General Records of the Department of Labor indicate that the Council submitted the problem to Secretary of Labor William B. Wilson who drew up plans for the appointment of a commission to end the copper strike and investigate the Bisbee deportations and labor conditions on the Pacific Coast. Secretary Wilson, in a letter and memorandum to the President of August 31, 1917, recommended a mediation commission consisting of Colonel J. L. Spangler, coal mine operator and banker; Verner Z. Reed, capitalist engaged in metal and petroleum mining, manufacturing, and ranching; John H. Walker, President of the Illinois State Federation of Labor; and E. P. Marsh, President of the Washington State Federation of Labor.²⁷

²⁴*Solidarity*, July 21, 1917.

²⁵Edward Berman, *Labor Disputes and the President of the United States*, (New York, 1924), p. 126.

²⁶Report of July 19, 1917, submitted to the Council of National Defense by George W. Bell, among the *General Records of the Department of Labor* in the National Archives, File No. 20/77.

²⁷*General Records of the Department of Labor*, in the National Archives, File No. 20/473.

The commission, known as the President's Mediation Commission, was appointed by President Wilson on September 19, 1917, in an order reading:

I am very much interested in the labor situation in the mountain region and on the Pacific coast. I have listened with attention and concern to the numerous charges of misconduct and injustice that representatives both of employers and of employees have made against each other.

I am not as much concerned, however, with the manner in which they have treated each other in the past as I am desirous of seeing some kind of a working arrangement arrived at for the future, particularly during the period of the war, on a basis that will be fair to all parties concerned.

To assist in the accomplishment of that purpose, I have decided to appoint a commission to visit the localities where disagreements have been most frequent as my personal representatives. The Commission will consist of William B. Wilson, Secretary of Labor; Col. J. L. Spangler, of Pennsylvania; Verner Z. Reed, of Colorado; John H. Walker, of Illinois; and E. P. Marsh of Washington. Felix Frankfurter, of New York, will act as secretary of the commission.

It will be the duty of the commission to visit in each instance the governor of the State, advising him that they are there as the personal representatives of the President with a view to lending sympathetic counsel and aid to the State government in the development of a better understanding between laborers and employers, and also to deal with employers and employees in a conciliatory spirit, seek to compose differences and allay misunderstanding, and in any way that may be open to them to show the active interest of the National Government in furthering arrangements just to both sides.

Wherever it is deemed advisable conferences of employers and employees should be called with the purpose of working out a mutual understanding between them which will insure the continued operation of the industry on conditions acceptable to both sides.

The commission should also endeavor to learn the real causes for any discontent which may exist on either side, not by the formal process of public hearings but by getting into touch with workmen and employers by the more informal process of personal conversation. I would be pleased to have the commission report to me from time to time such information as may require immediate attention.²⁸

In a memorandum of October 5, 1917, Felix Frankfurter stated that the purposes of the Commission would be to adjust outstanding controversies which touch war industries, and to leave behind such a state of feeling that no conflict involving a stoppage of work would occur for the duration of the war.²⁹ Thus, while the Commission was created to establish peace in a few specific industries, it was given broad powers to investigate and arbitrate disputes in which the government was not a party.

Ten days after its appointment the Commission left for Arizona where it conducted hearings in the various mining areas. Only two days were

²⁸*Ibid.* See also Official Bulletin No. 113 of the Committee On Public Information, September 21, 1917.

²⁹*Ibid.*, Memorandum to the Commission, File No. 20/473-A.

required to establish machinery for ending the strike in each district.³⁰ In the course of these negotiations the Commission tried to introduce the principle of collective bargaining.³¹

The result of the arbitration conferences was explained to Charles Moyer in a letter of October 19, which can be summarized as follows:

- (1) Each company is to recognize a grievance committee of employees. This committee is to consist of 4 men elected by secret ballot in the voting place on neutral ground.
- (2) This committee will have jurisdiction only when the individual involved in grievances fails to obtain his adjustment from his foreman.
- (3) The committee could carry the grievance to officers of the company for adjustment.
- (4) If the committee and management fail to agree, the grievance will be referred to an arbitrator.
- (5) All men still on strike who report for work within 5 days of this letter are to be reemployed without discrimination, "except those who since the beginning of the strike have been guilty of utterances disloyal to the United States, or who are members of any organization that refuses to recognize the obligation of contracts."
- (6) The committee can make investigations of the hospital departments of the companies on behalf of employees and make recommendations to the trustees relative to improvements.
- (7) The aforementioned machinery will take the place of strikes and lock-outs for the duration of the war.³²

With the settlement of the strike, "the Commission undertook an investigation of Bisbee deportations because of its danger to industrial peace . . . [and the] prosecution of the war and because of the embarrassment it caused among the allied nations".³³

On November 5 Secretary of Labor Wilson requested Sheriff Wheeler to allow entry to Bisbee to any person who sought entrance in a lawful and peaceful manner, and to allow free movement and the right to reside within the district to all.³⁴ In reply Sheriff Wheeler wrote:

Trying to reach the spirit of your letter I conclude all you desire is that all peaceably disposed persons not accused of any violation of law be permitted to enter this district without molestation.

³⁰See telegram from Frankfurter to L. B. Wehle in the series titled, "*Fragmentary Records of the President's Mediation Commission*," among the *General Records of the Department of Labor* in the National Archives.

³¹Berman, *Labor Disputes and the President*, p. 129.

³²Reprinted in *Miners' Magazine*, November, 1917; *New York Times*, October 24, 1917.

³³*Report on the Bisbee Deportations*, p. 3.

³⁴*General Records of the Department of Labor*, File No. 20/473-A, Letter of November 5 from Wilson to Wheeler.

With due regard to the necessity of apprehending the many slackers, of apprehending those guilty of violation of the State and Government prohibition law, I shall endeavor to fulfill my obligations in a manner best calculated to further the best interests of our country, our community, and lastly, ourselves.³⁵

The Commission's findings as published in its report included the following:

- (1) The deportations were illegal.
- (2) The function of the local judiciary was usurped by a vigilance committee having no authority in law.
- (3) The deputies prevented men who had registered under the Selective Service Act from reporting for physical examinations.
- (4) The Attorney General and Interstate Commerce Commission should investigate the deportations and Congress should make such deportations criminal by a specific law.

Secretary Wilson admitted that, although the strike was settled, many practices that the Commission declared illegal were still existing and the effects of the deportations were still felt.³⁶ How long the effects prevailed may be judged from the following letter among the records of the National Recovery Administration:

I feel that it is my duty as a former officer [of the U. S. Army] and as a citizen of Southern Arizona to inform you that some leaders of the Miners' Union of Bisbee are making plans with considerable secrecy to tie up the large copper properties of the Bisbee-Douglas Area . . . No strike seems justified because of working conditions . . . [as] their only ground [for striking] is union recognition . . . Any strike in the area would probably be accompanied by violence, since the older miners are still bitter about the lock-out and deportations of 1917.³⁷

³⁵*Ibid.*, Letter of November 6, Wheeler to Wilson.

³⁶*Ibid.*, Letter of November 6 from William B. Wilson to Governor Campbell.

³⁷Letter of August 4, 1934, from a consulting engineer to the NRA among the NRA records pertaining to the Copper Industry in the National Archives.

Forms of Cooperation and Mutual Aid in a Czech-American Rural Community

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Different farming groups in America have long had a deep-seated tradition of assisting one another by mutual aid activities. These practices, however, have apparently diminished in popularity and gradually mutual aid activities are becoming a thing of the past. Particularly non-contractual forms of cooperation have all but disappeared from the rural community of today. Yet, among a group of Czechs¹ who live in a rural farming community which is located in the southern portion of Burleson County, Texas, several different forms of mutual aid and cooperation are in evidence at the present time. There are a number of possible reasons for the retention of these different forms of cooperation but one of these is outstanding. Necessity, dating back several centuries, forced the Czech farmers to work together for the attainment of common or similar objectives. Realizing the value of collective action, they relied on self-help and so strongly indoctrinated the younger generations of this particular ethnic group with a spirit of cooperation that it has become a part of their cultural heritage.

Historical Background of the Community

During the latter part of the nineteenth century in the land which was to later become known as Czechoslovakia, the peasants suffered many hardships and only through cooperation and mutual aid activities were individuals able to survive. Persecuted for their religious and political beliefs, their language and culture suppressed, these people became interested in the democratic way of life in the New Country, where each could become a land owner and obtain the individual freedom he so desired. Emigration to America was their only hope of freedom.

The first Czech family arrived in what is now known as the Snook Community in 1884. Within the brief span of some ten years, the area was settled by this nationality group, and a Czech cultural island was created. At the present time over 97 per cent of the residents in its 98 households belong to this nationality derivation. Since the Czechs had little in common with the native whites in the surrounding area, they set up a community organization of their own where all of the ideals and what seemed to them to be "the really good things in life" brought from

¹A "Czech" as used in this paper is defined as one whose nationality derivation is from Czechoslovakia and who is, in the minds of the local residents, a Czech-American. Such an individual is not a Czech. He is an American and is called a Czech only for the purpose of distinguishing between the person of Czech ancestry and those of non-Czech ancestry.

their mother country could thrive and bear fruit. As a people the Czechs differed in cultural concepts from their neighboring nationality groups in that they attached values to different things and different values to the same things. They felt a need for being self-sufficient in the pursuit of their economic and social interests. The value of cooperation and mutual aid as a means of survival was recognized early in the history of the community, and habitual relations of mutual helpfulness between farmers remained deeply graven in the patterns of their culture.

Early Forms of Cooperation

A cooperative general merchandise store was organized by the Czechs in the Snook community as early as 1886. This action preceded the construction of either the school or the church. The cooperative store development was followed by the organization of the first benevolent and educational society in the area in 1887. This national organization was known as the *Cesko-Slovensky Podporupici Spolek* (The Czechoslovak Benevolent Society), commonly known as the CSPA. Local branches of this association were established throughout the United States wherever Czech immigrants settled. The organization was non-sectarian and paid out benefits to the sick and beneficiaries of the deceased. In about 1888 the members of the local organization built a lodge hall. This structure became the community center, and many colorful recreational activities were carried on in it. Since this mutual benefit organization was so popular, it is difficult to overestimate its value in the cultural, social, and fraternal life of the Czechs in the infant community.

Swapping of labor and the ownership of farm equipment cooperatively was a common practice. When a community resident became sick, his neighbors took "time out" from their work to harvest his crops at no cost to the owner. In addition to these cooperative efforts, shortly after the Czechs arrived in this country they formed a beef club. Through this medium of cooperative effort, the inhabitants availed themselves of the opportunity to have fresh beef every week of the year, and the club furnished a convenient weekly meeting place for the farmers where they could discuss mutual problems, the weather, the crops, and matters of community interest.

Forms of Cooperation in Practice Today

Snook farmers have a deep-seated tradition of assisting one another in their farm work. Over one-half of the farm operators in the community reported that they still "swap" labor with another person in the community. More than two-thirds of them, however, stated that they had practiced this form of cooperation in recent years before so many of the Czechs began contracting to have their hay baled. About 40 per cent of the operators own some type of farm equipment cooperatively with

another inhabitant of the community and proportionately more of the younger farmers own farm equipment cooperatively than is true of the older operators. Over 90 per cent of them share the ownership with relatives, and those who possess equipment under this arrangement share the ownership with other Czechs. The equipment owned under this cooperative arrangement ranges from a home-made ditch grader and two-row stalk cutter to a set of tractor discs and poisoning machines.

The Ladies' Aid Missionary Society in the leading church in the community² participates in several cooperative and mutual aid activities. When someone in the community is ill and is unable to do his own work, the Society members and such members of their families who can be spared from their work gather at the ill person's farm at an appointed time and perform his field work. Through this medium, work is turned into a social event and the women enjoy the day in each other's company. One of the members of the organization permits the Society to use a two-acre plot of land rent-free for the purpose of growing cotton. Husbands of individual members plow the land and plant the cotton. The entire membership gathers in the early spring to "hoe" the cotton which is collectively picked in the fall. Ginning services are furnished free of charge, so the ladies realize a profit and enjoy a "get together" each time a work project is performed. The receipts obtained through this medium are used in financing church projects.

The Czech-Moravian Brethren church organized and maintained a Czech school for over six decades that convened every summer for a period of one month. Although the school was sponsored by this religious group, its teachings were non-denominational and Catholic children were always in attendance, for the central aim of this school was to perpetuate the Czech language. The Czech school was discontinued in 1945, and the church then became interested in sponsoring a Vacation Bible School. This school is open to all of the younger children who reside both in and outside the community and is conducted on a cooperative basis. The Baptist and Lutheran churches which are located near Snook but outside its designated boundaries, and the Pentecostal Church are the cooperating members. Four teachers from each church conduct the classes daily for a period of two weeks, and the classes are conducted on a non-denominational basis. Thus the children from the separate denominations get to know each other better and prejudice is reduced where feelings of strangeness may have existed.

Another cooperative form of organization which affects virtually every

²The leading church in the community is the Czech-Moravian Brethren. Of the 228 people who are 15 years old and over in Snook's population, 80.3 per cent are Czech-Moravian Brethren; 9.7 per cent are Catholics; 5.3 per cent are Pentecostal; 2.6 per cent are Free Thinkers; and 2.1 per cent belong to other denominations.

home in Snook is the *Slovanska Podporujici Jednota Statu Texas* (The Slavonic Benevolent Order of the State of Texas), commonly known as the SPJST. Like the CSPS, it also is non-denominational and no explicit restrictions based on political beliefs or nationality are made on membership. All but four families are represented in the membership of this organization. Through its operation, all people of Czech extraction are offered advantageous life protection in the form of life insurance policies and the organization is a medium through which the Slavonic language is perpetuated in this country. Thus its various activities constitute a bastion for preserving group solidarity in a fast-changing environment.

Beef clubs⁴ are popular non-profit cooperative organizations in Snook. Three different clubs with a combined membership of 74 Czech households,⁵ are in operation at the present time. The first club was organized very early in Snook's history, and the other two have been added as the population increased. Each club owns a small wooden construction in which the beef is butchered and portioned out to its members each Saturday morning.

The operation of the club is not especially complex. A "butcher" is designated by the members of the club each year for the coming season. It is his duty to cut the meat into separate pieces, to record the exact cuts given each individual, and to keep the books in proper order. Each spring the members meet at their club house and draw lots to determine the order in which members furnish animals. Each member, in rotation according to the lot number that he has drawn, delivers the freshly-killed beef to the club house early Saturday morning.⁶ The butcher cuts the beef into separate pieces and divides the meat in the proper number of lots. At the beginning of the season each member designates the estimated amount of beef he wishes to receive each Saturday. The number of pounds he receives, however, varies with the size of the animal.⁷ Each family sends a

⁴The term, "beef club," is a local term and appears to be somewhat similar to what T. Lynn Smith and Lauren C. Post refer to as the "country butchery" in "The Country Butchery: A Cooperative Institution", *Rural Sociology*, II (September, 1937); 335-337.

⁵Six families in the community who were formerly members in beef clubs now have "deep-freeze" units and have withdrawn their memberships from the organizations.

⁶Usually the person who furnishes the beef gets up before dawn and slaughters the steer. He is allowed to keep and sell the steer's hide and also to keep such organs as the heart, liver, kidneys, sweet bread, tongue, etc. Two or three of his neighbors always help him "kill" and are usually rewarded by a big breakfast consisting of hot biscuits, coffee, and fried heart, kidneys, sweet bread, liver and gravy.

⁷If the beef is small on any given Saturday the butcher is notified of this fact ahead of time, and he then announces that another beef will be killed and distributed the following Tuesday. This, however, is not a common occurrence, for the farmers pride themselves in furnishing only the best of beef, and a good deal of competition exists between individual farmers to see who can "kill" the largest steer having tender meat.

representative to the club house to claim its share of the meat. In the past, only the fathers took care of this chore, and the beef club was a gathering place where the men exchanged news and spent many pleasant hours in conversation. Today, however, this responsibility is delegated to no one in particular, and since children, men, and women come for the meat, they usually come only for that one specific purpose and do not stay long. Family members appear at the club house with pots, pans, buckets, paper sacks, or flour sacks which serve as meat containers. As each member's name is called, the family representative steps forward to obtain his share. The organization usually operates until the early winter months, at which time Snook's inhabitants begin slaughtering hogs. At the end of the season the books are balanced and those who have received more beef than they have donated must pay the difference at a fixed price. This price is usually about one-half of what one would pay if he were buying the meat at a butcher shop. On the other hand, if a person contributes more beef than he receives during the year, he receives the difference in cash money. The butcher is paid a flat sum of money for acting in that capacity during the season.

Thus, in general, one could conclude that different forms of cooperation and mutual aid activities among the Czechs in this area are more extensive today than has been characteristic of rural America for several decades. Such practices as the exchange of farm work, sharing farm machinery and other facilities, growing crops together for the common benefit of the community, teaching children of different sects in a Bible School together on a non-denominational basis, mutual benefit organizations, and the operation of community-sponsored beef clubs are forms of cooperation and mutual aid that exist in the Snook Community at a time when these activities have all but disappeared from the rural community of today.

Socio-Psychological Integration in a Rural French-Speaking Section of Louisiana

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A population aggregate inhabiting a delimited area which has lived and worked together long enough to become organized into groups, and which shares in common a generalized value system, may be called a society. The collective actions and interactions of individuals toward some sort of end or goal generate a feeling of esprit de corps which in turn brings about social cohesion or solidarity. The quantity and quality of the socio-psychological bonds involved may vary for different societies, and the forces responsible for relative degrees of group, community, or societal integration operate mainly on the emotional and behavioral levels and are therefore susceptible to modifications and changes.¹ This paper describes certain structural and organizational characteristics which have been conducive to socio-psychological integration in a rural French-speaking section of South Louisiana.

Historical Background. The part of South Louisiana known as the Bayou Lafourche section is historically one of the oldest divisions of the state. Iberville and Bienville, in March, 1699, on their first trip up the Mississippi River stopped at the source of Bayou Lafourche, which was then known as the Bayou of Chitimachas,² named for the Chitimachas Indians who were settled there. The stream was originally one of the outlets of the Mississippi River to the Gulf of Mexico. Because of the angle at which the Bayou leaves the Mississippi River, the name Bayou Lafourche (fork) was given the stream by the French. The bayou is now dammed at the Mississippi and no longer serves its original purpose.

The settlement of Bayou Lafourche dates back to the middle of the Eighteenth Century, when a number of French people settled along this stream. Shortly afterwards, the population was increased by the infiltration of the homeless, wandering Acadians.

From 1755 to 1765, the population of (Louisiana) was increased by the migration of the exiled Acadians, who had been torn from their homes in Acadia, and sought Louisiana over which floated the lily banner of France. To achieve this purpose they overcame many difficulties, travelled overland more than 1,000 miles through a wilderness until they reached the Tennessee river where they hastily constructed boats

¹See Ralph Linton, *The Study of Man*, D. Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1936, Chap. VII, *passim*.

²F. X. Martin, *History of Louisiana*, New Orleans, 1862, p. 97.

and embarked, passing from the Tennessee river to the Mississippi, and down it to the Plaquemines Bayou, where they were met by friends and kindness.⁴

A number of these families settled along the Mississippi River in the territory now comprising the parishes of St. James, St. John, and Ascension, and along both banks of Bayou Lafourche. The remainder moved farther westward and settled along Bayou Teche and in the Attakapas country.⁴

An early census record of 1769 estimates the population of Lafourche at 267 persons of all ages, sex and color.⁵ At that time the settlement extended along the bayou from the mouth (the present site of Donaldsonville) to the present site of Thibodaux, a distance of approximately thirty-five miles.

In 1778, while Louisiana was a Spanish province, this section received an increase in population by the arrival of a number of Spanish families, colonists brought over at the King's expense from the Canary Islands. They formed the settlement known as Valenzuela.⁶ According to the historian, Martin, a house was built for each family. They were supplied with cattle, fowls, and farming utensils, and rations were to be furnished them for a period of four years out of the King's store. When Virginia refused to receive 1,500 Acadians as requested by authorities, the group was taken to England in 1756. Seven years later the remaining 831 survivors of this group were transferred to France. Twenty-two years later, in 1785, after an increase in number, fifteen hundred and sixty of these Acadians were permitted to migrate to Louisiana to join an approximately equal number of their compatriots (in many cases, relatives) who were living in this region under Spanish rule.⁷ Some of these Acadians also established themselves on Bayou Lafourche with their brethren and the early French and Spanish migrants.⁸

The entire territory along Bayou Lafourche, from Ascension Parish at the source to the Gulf of Mexico at the mouth, including the present parishes of Assumption, Lafourche, and Terrebonne, was known as Lafourche Settlement. It was one of the twelve counties into which the

⁴Alcee Fortier, *Louisiana*, Atlanta: Southern Historical Association, 1909, Vol. I, p. 97.

⁵Sidney Marchand, *The Story of Ascension Parish*, Ortlieb Printing Co., Baton Rouge, Louisiana, 1931.

⁶F. X. Martin, *op. cit.*, pp. 205-206.

⁷*Ibid*, pp. 223-224.

⁸Ernest Martin, *Les Exiles Acadiens en France au XVIII^e Siecle*, Paris, 1936, pp. 32-48, and pp. 210-232. See also Antoine Bernard, *Le Drama Acadien*, *op. cit.*, *passim*.

⁹Charles Gayarre, *History of Louisiana*, New Orleans, 1885, III, pp. 170-171.

territory was divided by the Legislative Council of 1804.⁹ On January 26, 1806, when the territorial legislature abolished the counties and set up parishes in their place, Lafourche Settlement was divided.¹⁰ The territory nearest the Atchafalaya River and to the west was called Assumption Parish. This territory contained about half the population.¹¹ The territory to the south on the lower part of the bayou was called Lafourche Interior. In the year 1853 the name of the parish was shortened from Lafourche Interior to Lafourche.¹²

Early Settlement and Organizational Patterns. The early French and Spanish settlers were given small holdings of land by the Spanish officials of the colony. A study of the conveyance books of Assumption Parish revealed that the greater part of the land was granted in tracts of four arpents¹³ frontage by forty arpents in depth, with quite a few tracts measuring from five to seven arpents frontage by forty arpents in depth. There were also a selected few influential settlers who received large grants. The land was laid out according to the French system previously used in certain sections of France and Canada.¹⁴ The bayou was made the point of departure and sections were laid off measuring usually four arpents along the bayou front which extended back towards the swamp in most instances for a distance of forty arpents. This system brought along both banks of the bayou a line of compact ribbon-like farms only one deep, lying alongside each other. With the bayou as a central street it presented the appearance of a village extending as far as the eye could see. The large plantation owners along the Mississippi River rightly called these people *les petits habitants du Bayou*.

⁹R. L. Carlton, "Local Government and Administration in Louisiana," University Studies No. 19, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, 1935, p. 30.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, p. 31. "Since the old Spanish division of religious purposes was used very largely as the basis in fixing the boundaries of these new areas, the term parish was applied to each of them . . . As an administrative and political area, the parish has much the same organization and functions as the county, and for practical purposes the names might be used interchangeably."

¹¹This included only about one-third of the actual area. The committee appointed by the legislature was instructed to set the boundary between the two parishes at a point that would give approximately an equal population to each parish. Since the banks along the upper part of Bayou Lafourche were much more thickly settled than the lower reaches, Lafourche Interior, in order to receive its proportionate share of the population, acquired a much larger territory.

¹²Alcee Fortier, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

¹³The arpent is still used occasionally to designate land area in southern Louisiana. Its area is about .85 of the English acre; or as a linear measure it equals approximately 198 feet.

¹⁴T. Lynn Smith, "Social Effects of Land Division," *Journal of Farm Economics*, XVIII, Nov., 1935, pp. 208-209.

Among these early and small peasant proprietors along Bayou Lafourche there were few Negroes. The Census of 1803 listed the total population along the entire stream at 2,800, of whom less than 400 were slaves.¹⁶ At this time cotton was the staple crop, as the cultivation of indigo, an earlier crop, had not proved remunerative, and was injurious to the health of the slaves. Each family cultivated a few acres of cotton which furnished a little cash income and enabled the inhabitants to manufacture their wearing apparel,¹⁸ meet their tax of obligations, and buy the few necessities that they required. Corn, rice, and peas were the principal food crops grown, and constituted the main diet. A little tobacco was also cultivated primarily for domestic use. Sugar cane was being cultivated only on a few farms and as yet had not proved profitable. A native of Assumption Parish comments on the fact that barely enough sugar could be produced to meet expenses, notwithstanding the high price of sugar in those times.¹⁷

On the front *gallerie* of their small but powerfully constructed houses of heavy cypress timber with walls composed of a mixture of bayou sand and moss, the early French settlers held their social gatherings. Balls were of weekly occurrence and were usually the occasions for them to eat their favorite dish, *gombo file*¹⁸ with rice, and for the men to drink their taffia, a sort of rum made of molasses.

W. W. Pugh, one of the early Anglo-Saxon settlers in this area, relates in his memoirs treating of this period that:

... the creoles¹⁹ constituted a happy community; their wants were few . . . There was but a small number of slaves . . . There were no aristocrats of either sex . . . The balls were well conducted, and the contrast in manner and deference toward the fair sex was marked when compared with similar assemblages among Americans of

¹⁶W. O. Scroggs, "Rural Life in the Lower Mississippi Valley About 1803," *Mississippi Valley Historical Association Proceedings*, (1914-1915) VIII, p. 268.

¹⁸Cotton cards, spinning wheels, and looms were a prime necessity found in every household, for most of the clothes worn were generally manufactured at home. Blue cottonade and hunting shirts for the males, and gingham dresses for the females, were the principal *habillement*.

¹⁷Andre Leblanc, "Historical and Statistical Collections of Assumption Parish," *DeBow's Review*, New Orleans, 1850, Vol. IX, p. 290.

¹⁸Made from the dried and pulverized leaves of the sassafras plant, whose roots were also used to make a tea for medicinal purposes—a remedy acquired from the Indians.

¹⁹Throughout his series of articles Mr. Pugh consistently refers to the Acadian settlers as Creoles, and rightly so. By definition they were (and are) Creoles—American-born descendants of French ancestors. Forced into exile, the French inhabitants of Acadia were afterwards called Acadians, until the name was corrupted into the familiar "Cajun."

the same class . . . They were noted for their politeness, or disposition to oblige and were the best of neighbors.²⁰

With the successful production of sugar cane in the 1820's, this crop gradually became paramount in importance and was the basis for the creation of large plantations by a number of Anglo-Saxon and French planters.

Along Bayou Lafourche shortly before the turn of the century, development of the lumber industry disturbed the plantation ecology which had largely been restored by 1880. Lumbering activity for three decades caused population movement which helped break down isolations, and brought French-speaking people into wider and more intimate contact with working class Anglo-Saxon whites, continuing the acculturation by which immigrant groups—except some Anglo-Saxon planters—had been prevailingly assimilated into the French-speaking culture.

Decline of the lumber industry as cypress forests were depleted occurred concurrently with the decline of the sugar cane industry which stemmed from several factors including increased ravages of parasites, particularly mosaic—a disease that had swept the cane-growing area by the middle 1920's. The introduction and gradual acceptance of the new P.O.J. cane varieties during succeeding years, however, slowly but steadily revitalized the sugar cane industry.

Other Organizational Patterns. Historically and currently the role of religion is deeply interwoven in the network of organizational patterns in French-speaking Louisiana. Ever since 1699 when missionary priests accompanying Iberville and Bienville celebrated the first Mass along the banks of the lower Mississippi, South Louisiana has been traditionally Catholic. Under the French colonial regime in Louisiana, the position and importance of the Church was greatly inferior to that which it enjoyed in French Canada. Although ensuing Spanish rule tried to impose on French Louisiana not only its political and social concepts but also its more rigid interpretation of Catholicism, it failed generally in all these efforts. Thus French Louisiana in its first experience of cultural pressure, as in its later contacts with Anglo-Saxon influences, remained essentially French. Indeed these outside elements often were acculturated to French Louisiana's way of life.²¹

²⁰W. W. Pugh, "Bayou Lafourche from 1820 to 1825—Its Inhabitants, Customs and Pursuits," *The Louisiana Planter and Sugar Manufacturer*, New Orleans, September 29, 1888, p. 143.

²¹Vernon J. Parenton, *The Rural French-Speaking People of Quebec and South Louisiana: A Comparative Study of Social Structure and Organization with Emphasis on the Role of the Catholic Church*, Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, June, 1948, Chaps. 3, 5. Cf. T. Lynn Smith and Vernon J. Parenton, "Acculturation Among the Louisiana French," *The American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. XLIV, No. 3, November, 1938.

The first Catholic Church along Bayou Lafouche was built in 1793 at Plattenville, now in Assumption Parish, on land donated by the Spanish government. From this Mother Church, Catholic influence has continuously radiated along the bayou since that time. Such influence has been less continuous in certain other areas of South Louisiana, thus weakening the position of the Church in those areas. As early as the middle 1820's, when Bishop Dubourg was lamenting what he regarded as a miserable state of religious interest in South Louisiana, he noted with much satisfaction one exception—namely, the Bayou Lafourche area. But in time as the Church expanded and developed its program of religious education it became more and more an important nucleus of goals and meanings for practically all of the people throughout French-speaking Louisiana.

As this observer expressed it a decade or so ago:

"One who has not lived in small villages and neighborhoods of French-speaking Louisiana cannot appreciate the true value of the Church as a means of solidarity and social control. Along with the family, religion is probably the strongest bond of solidarity in such groupings. In these groups a strong force binds the people to their Church. Even those who have been away for many years will, if it is at all possible, return to the community on feast days such as Christmas and All Saint's Day. To be sure, they come to visit friends and relatives, but another motive is that it affords them an opportunity to hear once more the old familiar church bells toll the "Angelus," to enter once again within the precinct of the Church which is associated with some of the most cherished events of their lives. It is the place where they made their first earthly journey to be baptized; it is there where they made their first solemn communion. To many, it marks the spot where they were joined in the bonds of holy matrimony, and also where was carried the remains of beloved parents and relatives for the final benediction of the Church."²²

Currently the Church has begun a concerted effort towards a coordination and integration of the numerous Catholic organizations and institutions operating in the area. There has been initiated a system of educational "coordination, standardization and unification such as had not been seen previously and bringing the parochial school system to its highest point of efficiency . . . (Church membership is at) its highest point so far. Catholic life . . . has been brought to the point of greatest activity and more complete organization than ever before . . ."²³

Generally, in rural South Louisiana, "The Acadian and French-speaking families offer an outstanding example of highly integrated family organization. It is a very complex cumulative group held together by blood bond, territory, religion, language, and to a certain extent economic status. The strength of the kinship tie is very well exemplified by the

²²Vernon J. Parenton, "Notes on the Social Organization of a French Village in South Louisiana," *Social Forces*, Vol. 17, No. 1, October, 1938, p. 79.

²³Roger Baudier, *The Catholic Church in Louisiana*, The Pelican Press, New Orleans, 1939, pp. 555-556.

wanderings of the Acadian exiles in their efforts to be reunited once more with parents and relatives. Family ties extend beyond the immediate group."²⁴ Neighbors are often blood relations. Although rates of reproduction have been declining in Twentieth Century Louisiana, Beegle and Smith in a recent study found that "The population of French-Catholic South Louisiana is multiplying far more rapidly than that of Anglo-Saxon Protestant North Louisiana. This difference prevails among all residential groups of both races. Except for the rural-urban differential it is the most significant difference observed."²⁵

Educational achievement in rural South Louisiana, (primarily because of differences in the general mentality of the people which are engendered by language, religion, class structure, and environment) has generally remained below the average of the state, which itself ranks low in rural educational status as compared to the rest of the south and the nation as a whole.²⁶

The accelerated program of rural Catholic education and the general change in the attitude of the French-speaking people towards secular education, however, may alter this existing situation.

French-speaking South Louisianians are an amusement-loving people. Many forms of recreation are available, but the most popular ones are dancing, movies, baseball, playing games of chance, fishing, hunting, and football. Recreation, however, is rapidly developing the urban pattern of commercialization. The community-sponsored dance hall, once the center of recreation for both young and old, is being replaced by the privately owned night club. The way of life in rural South Louisiana is becoming more urban and commercialized. The old French-speaking people, who in many cases can no longer communicate with their English-speaking grandchildren, appear to accept these social changes with mixed emotions of sadness and envy which are perhaps best expressed by the French adage: *Si jeunesse savait, si vieillesse pouvait*—if youth only knew; if old age only could.

Conclusion. The preceding paragraphs have described a number of socio-psychological bonds which have been conducive to societal integration in a rural French-speaking section of Louisiana. The strength, as well as the intensiveness and pervasiveness of these bonds, has varied

²⁴Vernon J. Parenton, "Notes on the Social Organization of a French Village in South Louisiana," *Social Forces*, Vol. 17, No. 1, October, 1938, p. 78.

²⁵Allan Beegle and T. Lynn Smith, *Differential Fertility in Louisiana*, Louisiana State University, Louisiana Bulletin No. 403, June, 1946, p. 5.

²⁶Cf. T. Lynn Smith and Louise Kemp, "Rural-Urban Differences in the Educational Status of Louisiana's White Population," *Louisiana Rural Economist*, Vol. 8, No. 2, May, 1946, pp. 4-6.

in the socio-cultural history of this group. The once strong unifying factors of language and national origins have weakened, but the mode of life generated by these is still significant. On the other hand, religion as an integrative force was at first relatively unimportant. The coming of the Acadian exiles, however, who were accustomed to a priest-guided society, served as potent stimuli to the Church and to the development of a French Catholic mentality.

Today, urbanizing influences are permeating the entire section. These include improved communication, mechanization of agriculture (with its concomitant social implications) and, particularly, mass media of education (radio, movies, and newspapers) as well as increased contacts outside French-speaking Louisiana. Nevertheless, the system of common values which was generated by language, national origin, settlement pattern, as well as familial, kinship, and religious ties, has thus far retained its societal integrative forces in this period of rapid and far-reaching technological changes now operative among these people.

Technological Unemployment and the "Mature" Economy

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That there has been an historical increase in employment does not refute the fact of technological unemployment. It merely indicates that in the past production has increased sufficiently faster than the increase in the productivity of labor to assure rising levels of employment. There is no assurance that this past pattern will continue. In fact, it may have stopped even now. The duration and intensity of unemployment in the thirties may have been caused by the fact that the productivity of labor had increased too fast relative to the increase in demand and production.

Rate of Industrial Growth

There is considerable evidence that the growth of an industry does not proceed at a uniform rate. In its early period a new industry grows at a very rapid rate. Eventually, however, the growth of industry in terms of output slows down. The rate of growth diminishes rather steadily from year to year. Finally when peak output is attained, the rate of growth becomes zero, and finally, perhaps, negative. Various writers have investigated this phenomenon of the retardation in the rate of industrial growth. Kuznets has made an elaborate historical-statistical analysis of industrial developments in several heavily industrialized capitalist countries.¹ His conclusion that there seems to be a tendency to retardation of technical progress is similar to the classical tendency of the fall in the rate of profits. The declining rate of increase in productivity is well represented by the logistic and Gompertz curves.

There are four main factors which account for the decline in the rate of an industry's growth:

(1) Slowing down of technical progress. At first there is a striking innovation which creates a new industry or thoroughly revolutionizes the technique of production of a given industry. The succeeding changes in the technique of production are slight as compared to the first change, and proceed at a diminishing rate. The number of operations in the industry to be improved is limited, and is soon exhausted. Every change reduces the possibility of further improvements. Various industries—cotton, woolens, iron and steel, shoes, paper, copper, and one invention, the steam engine—illustrate this tendency for the rate of progress to diminish with time. The technique of production gradually approaches stable forms. Important inventions tend to concentrate in the early

¹Simon Kuznets, *Secular Movements in Production and Prices*. Boston, 1930.

phases of an industry's history. The ratio of net returns to invested capital is largest in the early period of growth.

(2) The slower growing industries exercise a retarding influence on the faster growing complementary branches. The extractive and agricultural industries lag behind the manufacturing industries. The relative increase in the cost of raw materials for the more progressive manufacturing industries results in a rise in physical costs and a consequent retardation of progress.² The value added by manufacture grows smaller in relation to the cost of raw materials. The slow development of one group of industries tends to check the more rapid development of other groups of industries.

(3) The funds available for the expansion of an industry decrease in relative size as the industry grows. A new invention requires a large amount of capital in its early phase. The history of several industries illustrates that the funds available are greater in the early periods of growth than later on. The automobile industry is a notable exception. There is also a relation between old industries and new industries. The faster growth of new industries tends to divert capital and purchasing power from the older industries.

(4) An industry in one country may be retarded by the competition from the same industry in a younger country. Great Britain started its industrialization early. Germany and the United States didn't start till late. The rapid progress in the younger countries retarded the growth of the older English industrial system after the 1870's.

Burns' study of production trends in the United States complements that of Kuznets.³ He also finds a divergence in the rate of growth of various industries, and the tendency for the rate of growth to decline. A long-trend increase in employment is dependent on a series of radical innovations, the continual creation of new industries, and the revitalization of old industries.

Fabricant also finds evidence of retardation in the growth of output in American manufacturing industry.⁴ His conclusions are quite similar to those of Kuznets and Burns, but his method is somewhat different. Burns and Kuznets have investigated the data relating to the production of single commodities. Fabricant's data, however, covers groups of related commodities. Burns, for example, deals only with wheat flour pro-

²For a discussion of the onset of diminishing returns in mining see Harold Barger and Sam H. Schurr, *The Mining Industries, 1899-1939. A Study of Output, Employment and Productivity*. New York, 1944.

³Arthur F. Burns, *Production Trends in the United States Since 1870*. New York, 1934.

⁴Solomon Fabricant, *The Output of Manufacturing Industries, 1899-1937*. New York, 1940; *Employment in Manufacturing, 1899-1939*, New York, 1942.

duction; Fabricant's figures relate to the entire flour industry. There are some divergences between the production trends for individual commodities and for entire industries. The differences resulting, however, are not large, and will not in any way affect the demonstrated pattern of a declining rate of growth. Fabricant feels that his data is somewhat more significant than data on individual products.⁵

He puts the case concerning retarded growth quite forcefully:

"... The rate of change in manufacturing output has tended to decline with the passage of time. Rapid rates of increase in output have usually been followed by slower rates, and the latter by actual decreases. Put somewhat differently, the output of individual industries has tended to rise less and less rapidly from decade to decade, eventually becoming zero (at peak output) and then negative."⁶

Between 1899 and 1929 factory output increased almost fourfold. Between 1929 and 1937, factory output changed only fractionally. In fact, relative to the national product, the increase in factory output came almost entirely between 1899 and 1919.⁷

The cigar and the automobile industries indicate very vividly a decelerating rate of growth. Between 1869 and 1879 the annual rate of increase in cigar production was 7.5 percent. Between 1879 and 1889 it was only 6.1 percent. From 1899 to 1909 the output of cigars rose only 3.3 percent per year. In the next decade the rate of increase dropped to 0.1 percent per year. Between 1919 and 1929, output declined 1.2 percent annually. From 1929 to 1937 the decline in output was at the rate of 2.7 percent per year.⁸ From 1899 to 1909 the output of automobiles grew at the rate of 43 percent per year. Between 1909 and 1919 the annual rate of growth declined to 32 percent. From 1919 to 1929 automobile manufacture increased annually by 13 percent. After 1929 a decline set in. Production actually fell off at the rate of 1.3 percent per year from 1929 to 1937.⁹ These figures have been taken from the data relating to ninety-nine industries presented by Fabricant. The same picture of a decelerated rate of growth can be found in such industries as meat-packing, food products, textiles, iron and steel, machinery, and non-ferrous metals.¹⁰

Rate of Growth and Employment

The retarded rate of growth in manufacturing industries creates a definite pattern of employment trends. New industries, new products,

⁵Fabricant, *Employment in Manufacturing, 1899-1939*, p. 143.

⁶*Ibid.*, p. 138.

⁷*Ibid.*, p. 165.

⁸*Ibid.*, p. 157.

⁹Fabricant, *Employment in Manufacturing, 1899-1939*, p. 157.

¹⁰Another writer on the phenomenon of retarded industrial growth is Julius Wolf, *Die Volkswirtschaft der Gegenwart und Zukunft*. Leipzig, 1912.

create a new demand for labor. This new demand for labor can be expected to increase steadily in the early period of an industry's development. The industry's basic methods of production are not stabilized, but are still undergoing transformation. There is a large demand for new machinery. Demand for the new product expands. More and more consumers become acquainted with the good. More machinery is needed to expand output. There is both deepening and widening of capital. Progressive technology results in an expanding output and creates new jobs. Fabricant's data indicates that those industries which increased productivity the most also increased output and employment the most. Productivity per unit of labor rose very rapidly in the automobile and chemical industries. This led by no means to a displacement of labor. The expansion in output of automobiles was so great as to cause an enormous increase in employment in the automobile industry. In chemicals, output increased twenty-five times, and employment eight times.¹¹ On the other hand, those industries which lagged behind in productivity increases were those which failed to expand both labor and output. In the lumber mills, for example, productivity per man hour of labor actually declined between 1899 and 1937. Employment and output also dropped.¹²

In time the technique of production in the progressive industries becomes stabilized. There is no longer a stimulating effect on the capital-goods sector of the economy. The rate of growth in demand also tends to be decelerated. The new good becomes an old good in the community's consumption pattern. The market is saturated, consumer's demand is largely for replacement only. The elasticity of demand declines. Fabricant indicates that the decline in unit costs and prices is greatest in the early stages of an industry's development.¹³ The first few major technical changes cause a great reduction in the price of the finished product which will result in a significant expansion in the market for the good. As the industry approaches maturity subsequent improvements result in a less rapid decline in unit costs and prices. The elasticity of demand declines in response to successive cost decreases resulting from a series of technical changes.¹⁴ The rate of growth of output tapers off. The labor-absorbing capacity of the industry also, therefore, declines. In the declining period of an industry's development the difficulty in expanding demand places an emphasis on cost reduction. Improvements of both the labor-saving and capital-saving type which promise great

¹¹Fabricant, *The Output of Manufacturing Industries, 1899-1937*. 18-19.

¹²Fabricant, *Employment in Manufacturing, 1899-1939*, p. 155.

¹³Fabricant, *The Output of Manufacturing Industries, 1899-1937*, p. 120.

¹⁴Cf. Kuznets, *op. cit.*, p. 9.

cost of reduction will be introduced. True technological displacement will result.

The trends of employment and output in the course of an industry's evolution are not precisely the same. In the early period of a manufacturing industry's development output usually expands very quickly. There is also a great increase in productivity. However, the increase in output is proportionately so much greater than the increase in productivity that employment also expands very quickly. Aggregate employment will, on the whole grow more slowly than output. In the mature stages of an industry's history, demand expands only slightly, if at all. Productivity is now proportionately greater than the increase in output, and the rate of growth of employment becomes retarded. Detailed improvements in technique which decrease labor requirements considerably but do not stimulate demand are introduced. These improvements may cost very little to apply. They are frequently of the capital-saving variety. The total number of jobs in the industry may actually show a net decline. A peak in employment is usually reached before a peak in output. In this period between the two peaks, employment will decline while output is still rising. In the railroad industry, for example, the peak of pre-war employment was reached in 1923. Average employment in that year on Class I railroads was 1,858,000.¹⁵ The peak of combined freight and passenger traffic, however, was attained in 1929. Between 1923 and 1929 railroad traffic increased 3 percent. Employment, however, declined 11 percent in this period. All class I railroads employed an average of only 1,661,000 workers in 1929. Productivity increased by more than 18 percent in this six-year period.¹⁶ In waning industries, falling output is accompanied by even greater declines in the number of workers employed. In its young period a new industry is job creating; in the later days of its evolution it becomes job displacing.

New industries must continually arise to displace old industries. The retarded employment opportunities in the older industries were quickly offset by the large and growing demands for labor in the new industries. Markets expanded rapidly. Levels of employment were continually rising. A continuation of this pattern would depend on the continual emergence of new industries and products which would continually replace old industries.

Growth and the "Mature" Economy

Can we confidently expect that this pattern will continue in the future? Numerous theorists have stated that we have approached the con-

¹⁵David Weintraub and Irving Kaplan, *Summary of Findings to Date*, Philadelphia, WPA National Resources Project Report No. G-3, 1938, p. 110.

¹⁶*Ibid.*, p. 111.

dition of a mature economy. The economy is due for a period of secular stagnation—"sick recoveries which die in their infancy and depressions which feed on themselves and leave a hard and seemingly immovable core of unemployment."¹⁷ Among the causes of the stagnation are a decline in the rate of population increase, the lack of new markets, the dearth of new industries, the large number of capital-saving inventions, monopolistic control of investment, and the rigidities of the cost-price structure due to monopoly. It is not our intention to enter into a discussion of the mature economy literature. It is considerable of course.¹⁸ We wish merely to consider the implications of the mature economy for the problem of technological unemployment.

The mature economy doctrine has revived interest in the problem of economic change and evolution. The classical writers devoted some time to the problem of economic evolution. Their models were highly simplified and generalized. The marginal utility school limited itself to static problems. The historical school produced a number of interesting monographs, but gave no general picture of change and evolution. Today's method of treating the problem of long-period development involves considerable statistical investigation, as compared to the speculative method of the classics.

¹⁷Alvin H. Hansen, "Economic Progress and Declining Population Growth", *American Economic Review*, V. 29, number 1, Part 1 (March, 1939), p. 4.

¹⁸A good presentation of the doctrine can be found in Professor Hansen's writings. Some items are: *Full Recovery or Stagnation?* New York, 1938; *Fiscal Policy and Business Cycles*, New York, 1941; "Economic Progress and Declining Population Growth", *American Economic Review*, Vol. 22, No. 1 (March, 1939), 1-15; "Extensive Expansion and Population Growth", *Journal of Political Economy*, Vol. 48, No. 4 (August, 1940), 583-585. Some other articles on the subject are: Alan Sweezy, "Population Growth and Investment Opportunity", *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. 55 (November, 1940), 64-79; "Secular Stagnation?", in *Post-War Economic Problems*, ed. by Seymour Harris, New York, 1943; Oscar Lange, "Is the American Economy Contracting?", *American Economic Review*, Vol. 29 (September, 1939), 503-513; G. Colm, "Comments on W. I. King: Are We Suffering from Economic Maturity?", *Journal of Political Economy*, Vol. 48 (February, 1940), 114-118; G. H. Hildebrandt Jr., "Monopolization and the Decline of Investment Opportunity", *American Economic Review*, Vol. 33 (September, 1943), 591-601.

Criticisms of the stagnation thesis are to be found in: W. I. King, "Are We Suffering from Economic Maturity?", *Journal of Political Economy*, Vol. 47 (October, 1939), 609-622; Henry C. Simons, "Hansen on Fiscal Policy," *ibid.*, Vol. 50 (April, 1942), 161-197; W. Fellner, "The Technological Argument of the Stagnation Thesis", *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. 55 (August, 1941), 638-651; H. G. Moulton, *The New Philosophy of Public Debt*, Washington, 1943; G. Terborgh, *The Bogy of Economic Maturity*, Chicago, 1945.

Professor Schumpeter points out that the decline is due not to secular stagnation, the existence of which he denies, but that "the social atmosphere resulting from capitalism is hostile to it and produces policies which do not allow it to function." *Business Cycles*, 1031-1050. A further elaboration of Professor Schumpeter's views on the problem of declining investment opportunity is contained in his *Capitalism, Socialism and Democracy*, New York, 1942, particularly part 2.

Classical theory saw a long-run historic trend to a decline in the rate of profits which tended to retard economic growth. Technical change could offset, but not counteract permanently, the tendency to a stationary economy. A continuation of technical change was needed to prevent stagnation. Adam Smith stated that the constant accumulation of capital would cause the rate of interest and the rate of profits to fall. Technical change temporarily increased the rate of profits, thus counteracting the historic trend to a stationary state. For Ricardo, the inevitable decline in the rate of profits was a consequence of diminishing returns to agriculture. Technical improvements in agriculture, he thought, were the only form of technological progress which would permanently check the tendency to a falling rate of profits. John Stuart Mill foresaw a stationary state as the future of society. The neo-classical school, by contrast, as represented by Marshall, Cassel, and J. B. Clark, thought that the economic system was self-perpetuating and could expand without limits.

We have seen that in the past continual technological progress served to increase long-run levels of employment. If we are in a mature economy, and there is a lack of new industries and new products, what happens to the labor-absorbing capacity of the economy? A lack of new industries will result in a marked decline in the marginal efficiency of capital. There is but a small stimulus to the capital-goods industries. No new demands are created. Old industries are not rendered obsolete by new industries which replace them. These old industries may well be in their period of retarded growth. Output increases too slowly relative to the increase in productivity to prevent labor displacement.

Labor-saving and capital-saving improvements will have their full impact on employment in such a period. Declines in the amount of labor required per unit of output are accompanied by only slight increases in production. These increases may be insufficient to offset the effects of increased productivity. Technological unemployment will emerge unless the increase in output is proportionately greater than the increase in productivity. Furthermore, the increase in output must be sufficiently great to absorb the annual increase in the population.¹⁹ There will, of course, be innovations and spurts of investment in the mature economy. It is uncertain, however, that there will be enough stimulation to new

¹⁹ Fabricant points out that in the past the rate of increase in manufacturing output has been greater than the rate of growth in population. Between 1899 and 1937 the population of the United States rose from 75,000,000 to 129,000,000. This represents an overall increase of 73 percent and an average annual rate of growth of 1.4 percent. Manufacturing output, however, rose 276 percent in this period, an average increase of 3.5 percent per annum. The rate of increase in manufacturing output was thus more than twice the rate of growth in population. *The Output of Manufacturing Industries, 1899-1937*, p. 52.

capital investment to take up the slack resulting from the reduced rate of population and territorial growth.²⁰ A very large fraction of the unemployment of the thirties may well have been technological unemployment. The electric power and mass production industries increased productivity considerably. Even on the upturn of the cycle, although output increased, there was no corresponding increase in employment. Perhaps there was a permanent decline in the ability of American industry to absorb labor.

Present Prospects

The mature economy is not a stagnant or unprogressive economy. There will be considerable technological innovation and investment in the mature economy. In the period of the "stagnant" thirties, for example, technological progress was rapid and productivity rose considerably.²¹ If we are in a mature economy, however, the rate of technological progress may not be rapid enough to absorb all the savings of the community and provide positions for all those who are willing to work.²² It is possible that there will be intermittent periods of clusters of innovations and a consequent rise in investment and employment levels. The effects of such a boom, however, may soon peter out, and unless there is a new clustering of innovations a depression will result. The phenomenon of booms in a period of stagnation has been described clearly by Alan Sweezy:

Even aside from war and reconstruction, a stagnant economy would undoubtedly experience periods of expansion. The rate of technical innovation is likely to be quite uneven, and the bunching of new techniques, new products, etc., would from time to time give rise to enough investment to carry income and employment to reasonably high levels. But the expansion, lacking the support of growth, would tend to give out sooner and be followed by a longer, more severe depression than in a rapidly growing economy.²³

A new product, a new industry, is usually job-creating. In a period of rapid technological progress, labor-saving devices may not create any noticeable unemployment because their effects are more than offset by the over-all stimulation to the economy resulting from new industries. In a mature economy, where there are few great new industries, however, labor-saving and capital-saving improvements can have very unfortunate effects on employment. Monopoloid conditions over a wide sector of the economy will tend to cause a delay in the introduction of innovations, and lead to a reduction in real capital investment.²⁴ Technological

²⁰This last point is stressed by Alan Sweezy, "Secular Stagnation?", p. 72.

²¹S. Bell, *Productivity, Wages, and National Income*, Brookings, 1940, 270-280.

²²For a contrary view see Terborgh, *op. cit.*, 86-90.

²³A. Sweezy, "Secular Stagnation?", 79-80.

²⁴Hildebrand, *op. cit.*, p. 593, places emphasis on this last point.

unemployment will emerge with full force unless some new means of increasing capital investment and demand are found.

Productivity has been increasing constantly during the forties. Technological unemployment has not appeared because of the unprecedented levels of output and demand. If output were to fall off and the introduction of new labor-saving devices were to be accelerated, technological unemployment might emerge *en masse*.

Book Reviews

Edited by H. MALCOLM MACDONALD

DAVID SPITZ: *Patterns of Anti-Democratic Thought; An Analysis and a Criticism, with Special Reference to the American Political Mind in Recent Times.* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949, Pp., 304, \$4.50.)

Young Americans were once advised, it seems, to "Go West." Now, the young scholar might be advised to "Go taxonomic." Such is the scholarly adventure that Dr. Spitz has undertaken, and probably he has achieved a degree of success compatible with the ambiguities of the discussion of both democratic theory and its critics. Indeed, much of the advance in the social sciences arises precisely from this variety of scholarly effort, which looks into the taxonomy of concepts under particular historical conditions. The primary difficulty of the volume emerges from its essentially negative character, for there is no coherent name for those who criticize or reject democracy. Nor does the author take time to state effectively what he considers to be democratic, and thus the difficulties of the issue are compounded.

This reviewer believes that Dr. Spitz' basic weakness is his unwillingness or his inability to distinguish between those who weigh or criticize democracy in the hope of saving or helping it, and those who criticize democratic doctrines in order to destroy them. After seeing certain late and eminent political scientists firmly branded as anti-democratic, one is led to wonder who the "democratic" thinkers are. It is apparently Dr. Spitz' unelaborated, yet tenaciously held, theory that leads to conclusions that are extreme. It is difficult for this reviewer to believe that A. F. Bentley, W. B. Munro, E. M. Sait, W. W. Willoughby, J. A. Schumpeter, Walter Lippmann, and others, are greater enemies of democracy than some of the Americans the author does not discuss.

Two major classes of anti-democratic theory are developed. First, there are those who assert the impossibility of democracy. These are divided into those who posit a ruling class as an organizational necessity (e. g., A. F. Bentley, Frank R. Kent, and James Burnham), and those who regard the ruling class as a conspiracy of power (e. g., Plato, Max Nomad, William B. Munro, and Lawrence Dennis). Second, there are those who believe that democracy is undesirable. These thinkers are divided into those who speak of the incompetence of the average man (e. g., Calvin, Burke, Alexander Hamilton, A. J. Nock, W. W. Willoughby, Walter Lippmann, R. A. Cram); those who expound the idea of a racial aristocracy (e. g., John W. Burgess, George Santayana, H. L. Mencken, William B. Munro, Irving Babbitt, Madison Grant); those

who expound the idea of a biological aristocracy (e. g., Alleyne Ireland, E. M. Sait); those who defend the concept of a natural aristocracy (e. g., James Harrington, Burke, John Adams, Irving Babbitt, Paul Elmer More, Fulton J. Sheen, T. S. Eliot, George Santayana—Thomas Jefferson should have been included here—); and those who defend authority and a restrictive way of life (e. g., Calvin, Irving Babbitt, the *caudillos*, Goering).

This system of classification omits any consideration of the implications of psychological theory, such as might be taken from Freud; it neglects the implications of modern philosophies of history; and though the author is a critic of Marx, it neglects the American defenders of Leninist-Stalinist thought. Dr. Spitz' classification does not take account of changing meanings in the term "democracy," and the analysis makes little or no effort to consider the historical background of ideas. Philosophical and religious ideas are only incidentally touched in this classification, and religious ideas seem, apparently, largely anti-democratic.

A more imposing issue is raised, however, by Dr. Spitz' seeming insistence that the only tenable democratic position is an extreme form of moral relativism. If Fulton J. Sheen is anti-democratic because he urges the validity of natural law, was the Jefferson who penned The Declaration of Independence also anti-democratic? Or the great mass of Christian writers, such as Reinhold Niebuhr, who believe in the existence of a moral order? Dr. Spitz says freedom is the right of all men, and not simply the prerogative of a chosen few. Quite right, but he does not say why anyone is entitled to freedom. It makes a difference as to how freedom for anyone is defended, and this reviewer might argue that finally Dr. Spitz' moral relativism may defend freedom for none. Such a relativism may be the most anti-democratic of all political doctrines. (p.155) One defect of the volume is its failure to analyze the idea of constitutional government in relation to anti-democratic thought. The author does affirm, however, that certain states, like England, the United States, Switzerland, Australia and others "have approximated to the democratic principle." (p. 27).

University of Illinois

Francis G. Wilson

WESLEY FRANK CRAVEN: *The Southern Colonies in the Seventeenth Century, 1607-1689*. (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press and Littlefield Fund for Southern History of The University of Texas, 1949, Pp., xx, 451, \$6.00)

This is the first volume in *A History of the South* published jointly by The Littlefield Fund for Southern History of The University of Texas and Louisiana State University. Actually it is the third of the ten volumes to make its appearance, being preceded by the eighth and the

fifth volume. This reviewer hopes that the remaining volumes will appear in order for the sake of continuity of reading.

The editors' preface very aptly says: "Authors of early volumes in the series are writing, in fact, about periods which antedated a Southern consciousness" (p. xi). The comment is certainly applicable to Professor Craven's volume, in fact, to the first four volumes, and Professor Craven refers to the comment in his own preface with the words: "To write of the South when there was no South is a task not without difficulties. The men and women whose story is recounted in the following pages were not Southerners; in fact, they did not think of themselves even as Americans" (p. xiii). And still farther he says that in determining "what of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries belongs to a history of the South? . . . the emphasis naturally tends to fall on the peculiar qualities of Southern society" (p. xiii). This reviewer, although he was not consciously searching the author's story to find any positive statements of things, ideas, customs, or what not, distinctively Southern that developed in the seventeenth century, readily saw the author's references to the early adoption of "the later Southern custom of a nap after the midday meal" (p. 107), "the public responsibility that went with social position" (p. 157), the poll tax with its roots in the public levy or head tax to secure revenue for various projects (p. 165), the family burying ground and the home wedding (p. 181), and the shaping of local administration "to a community of institutional usage . . . as distinctly regional in form as that which . . . centered about the New England town" (p. 204).

In its organization this volume contains eleven chapters. The first chapter discusses Spain's route to the new world, "a southern approach to North America" by the use of which "the settlement not only of Spanish Florida but of the English in Virginia, Maryland, and the Carolinas was initially accomplished" (p. 1). The second chapter is the record of failure on Roanoke Island from which the English people learned the valuable lesson that success in colonization depended, first, upon the pooling of the financial resources of a large number of people and, secondly, upon creating an interest in Englishmen to keep on being willing to become settlers in America. Chapters three through eight trace the colonization of Virginia and Maryland to the restoration of the Stuarts, and in these chapters the author skillfully emphasizes the importance which the London Company and Lord Calvert placed upon the production of staples for the economic self-sufficiency of the mother country. Quite consciously (see pp. 57, 59, and others) the author pays great tribute to the recommendations which the younger Richard Hakluyt gave to the London Company about the planting of certain crops. Land was the magnet which drew colonists to the Chesapeake; tobacco was the crop that brought in money; but time and again efforts were made

in the production of other crops, such as sugar cane, olives, cotton, indigo, rice, and potatoes. Determined efforts were also made to produce wine and silk. In these chapters the author carefully portrays the establishment of provincial government, of the representative assembly, and of county government, the latter a point of considerable importance. The ninth chapter traces the founding and development of the Carolinas and places emphasis again on the production of staples for national self-sufficiency and on the development of provincial and county government. The importance of the offices of governor, sheriff, and justice is stressed for the Carolinas as for the other two colonies. Finally, the last two chapters deal with Bacon's rebellion, the governorship of Lord Culpeper and of Lord Howard of Effingham in Virginia, the contacts of English traders with the French and Spaniards eventually leading to a long period of international conflict, and with the conditions in Maryland that culminated in Coode's rebellion and the temporary over-throw of proprietary government. All in all, this is a reliable book and will take its proper place in the series.

The University of Texas

Rudolph L. Bieseke

ROBERT A. HARPER: *Marriage* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1949, Pp., 308, \$2.75.)

In the preface of this new textbook on marriage, the author has stated his aims as follows: "1. To present a simply worded statement of the major facts and ideas about marriage suited to the needs and backgrounds of students in elementary courses in colleges. 2. To produce a book drawing from, but not citing references to, the researches that have been made in marriage. 3. To place emphasis upon the reader's personal needs and interests in marriage and family living instead of on sociological and psychological theories and historical perspective. 4. To be brief and to the point."

The fourth objective of the author, "to be brief and to the point," has been fulfilled by a text only 308 pages in length and organized in fifteen separate chapters. These fifteen chapters are grouped in four sections: I. Preliminary Considerations About Marriage. II. Premarital Adjustment. III. Marital Adjustment. IV. Family Adjustment. The titles of the chapters are for the most part comparable to the chapter organization of some other previous texts on marriage. The author does give more emphasis than some other texts to the inter-relationship between the family and the community.

The second objective expressed and carried out by the author, "—to draw from but not cite references to researches—," will probably not be looked upon with favor by some teachers and by some of the more

advanced and discriminating students. To state as the text has done on several occasions that "several studies have shown" leaves the reader with the question "What studies?" Perhaps these references might have been collected in assembled form at the close of the text. To leave the text without any substantiating references of this type gives the book somewhat the appearance and tone of being subjective or personal. This subjective or personal quality also appears in some of the materials the author uses for illustrations of his own viewpoints.

As a whole, however, the author has admirably achieved his purpose expressed on page 139 of the text, where he says "—the reader is reminded that the whole book is directed toward helping him to improve his chances of succeeding in marriage." The problems of youth looking forward to and preparing for marriage, the problems of husbands and wives, and the problems of parents and children are all presented in a positive, sound, intelligent, and helpful manner.

The book is brief but it is of excellent quality. It is interesting and easy to read. The viewpoints expressed are in harmony and keeping with the viewpoints of the best scholars in the field of marriage and the family today. It is decidedly modern and at the same time distinctly constructive. The treatment of all of the problems is of excellent quality and on a high level. The book should prove to be popular with college and university students. It should also be in good demand as a textbook for courses in marriage. It should be especially satisfactory as a text in those courses where the textbook is not used as the one source of all wisdom and knowledge, but where the text is used as a guide to wisdom and knowledge through class discussion of the problems under consideration.

Trinity University

Charles N. Burrows

CHARLES S. RHYNE, (Editor): *Municipalities and the Law in Action* (1949 edition). (Washington, D. C.: National Institute of Municipal Law Offices, 1949, Pp., 441, \$10.00.)

One of the services of the National Institute of Municipal Law Officers is the publication of an annual volume entitled *Municipalities and the Law in Action*, which is designed to assist the city attorney in just this problem. The latest edition of this book, is the 12th of the series. Each year's volume summarizes the legal developments and the experiences of the preceding year and serves to compile, for ready reference, useful material and references in all phases of the municipal law.

The Volume consists of the full texts of each of the nineteen committee reports submitted by the various NIMLO committees assigned to a particular phase of municipal law work, as well as the full texts of all discussions which took place at the 1948 Annual Conference of the Na-

tional Institute with reference to the problems emphasized and presented in the committee reports. Specialized subjects are also treated through the reproduction of research papers on such topics. An example of the latter type of paper which appears in *Municipalities and the Law In Action* is that entitled "Comments on the Conduct of a Telephone Rate Proceedings." This paper written by Jerome Joffe, Special Utilities Counsel to Kansas City, Missouri, provides invaluable suggestions for the municipal attorney who must engage in telephone rate increase proceedings. The usefulness of such an article is readily apparent as utility rate litigation is a highly specialized field.

Other topics of special interest which are treated particularly are the papers on Municipal Taxation of Radio Stations, a consideration of the recently adopted New Jersey in Rem Foreclosure Act, a discussion of the Los Angeles County Employee loyalty oath program, a suggestion for the stabilization of the salaries of City Attorneys, a discussion of the problem of overtime compensation for city employees, the extent to which courts may control or interfere with quasi-judicial functions of city councils, an enlightening presentation of the back-ground of present-day public utility regulations, a dissertation upon the advantages and disadvantages of city-county consolidation, an extended bibliography upon the question of home rule for municipalities as well as the text of a paper on this subject by the Corporation Counsel of Chicago, a consideration of the problem of the architectural control of buildings, and an analysis of municipal liability in connection with natural streams and water courses.

The reports of the various committees cover the subjects of Taxation and Revenues, Internal Revenue Code Amendments, City Officer and Employee Problems, Airport Legal Problems, Public Utilities, Public Housing, Blighted Area Elimination, Federal-City Relations, Civil Defense, Municipal Revenues from Federally-Owned Property, City-State Relations, Inter-municipal Cooperation, Zoning and Planning, Civil Liberties, Tort Liability, Ordinances and Ordinance Enforcement, Contracts and Municipal Bonds.

The volume is indexed so as to provide ready reference to the material contained in the volume and is a "must" for the city attorney.

The University of Texas

Stuart A. MacCorkle

MICHEL N. PAVLOVSKY: *Chinese-Russian Relations*. (New York: Philosophical Library, 1949, 164 Pp., \$3.75.)

This is a queer book. It may be likened to a chicken salad with only a few slices of chicken in it. While bearing the high-sounding comprehensive title *Chinese-Russian Relations*, it in fact deals partly with a restricted aspect of Sino-Russian relations concerning Outer Mongolia, and, partly,

with some minor unrelated subjects such as "The Jesuits In Early Sino-Russian Relations," "Concerning A Strange Document," and "Russian Emigres In China At the End of the 17th Century". These latter factors never had any important influence on the course of diplomatic events in the Far East and certainly do not have any connection with the critical situation now developing in that area. Yet, the discussion of these historical curiosities occupies about half of the book.

The other half is devoted to a discussion of "The Role of Mongolia," mainly from the standpoint of diplomacy. The diplomatic story of Mongolia has been told before. Indeed, nearly all the important points presented by Mr. Pavlovsky have been presented by earlier authors. For instance, Dr. Ken-Shen Weigh in his *Russo-Chinese Diplomacy* (Shanghai, 1928) has dealt with the subject very thoroughly. Another competent treatise on the subject can be found in *The China Year Book* of 1922 or 1923. Mr. Pavlovsky, it seems, has drawn heavily from these two works; but he also uses numerous other sources. Most of these sources are well-known; they are decidedly not, as the author frequently hints they are, newly uncovered or freshly released.

The work shows many apparent attempts at impartiality and objectivity. However, the author often displays an incomplete or inaccurate understanding of the important issues involved. For instance, in discussing the first Karakhan Declaration of 1919, Mr. Pavlovsky admits as a fact that the Soviet Government had definitely promised to return the Chinese Eastern Railway to China without compensation (Cf. p. 87). Actually, the matter had been under hot dispute until the conclusion of the Sino-Soviet treaty of 1924. While China claimed, as does Mr. Pavlovsky, that the Soviet Government had made that promise, the latter categorically denied that it had ever done so, and the official Soviet version of the first Karakhan Declaration does not refer to the Chinese Eastern Railway at all.

Mr. Pavlovsky appears to be totally unaware of the secret treaty concluded by Russia with Japan in 1907 relative to Outer Mongolia. Consequently, he erroneously supposes that Tsarist dark designs on Mongolia began only about the time of the Chinese Revolution in 1911 (Cf p. 46). In a footnote he explains: "At the moment when Sazanov was writing his report (1912), Russia and Japan had concluded only the agreements of 1907 and 1910, which defined their spheres of influence in Manchuria only. It was not until later, on the 21st of October, 1912, and on the 25th of May, 1915, that the line of demarcation between the Russian and Japanese interests was drawn in Mongolia" (Cf. p. 169). This explanation appears inaccurate in several respects. First, Russia did conclude a secret treaty with Japan in 1907, marking out Outer Mongolia as a Russian sphere (Cf. E. B. Price, *The Russo-Japanese Treaties of 1907-1916*, p.

108). The treaty of 1912 referred to by Mr. Pavlovsky concerns only Inner Mongolia, which is a different separate area from Outer Mongolia.

Mr. Pavlovsky takes great pains to point out that the Government of China had for nearly two centuries maintained a "no-man's land" to separate Mongolia from Russia, but that in 1906 that Government changed its traditional policy and tried to colonize and militarize Mongolia and thereby threatened the Trans-Siberian Railway and provoked Russian intervention in Mongolia. This view is hardly fair. Russia began to build the Trans-Siberian in 1891. By 1896 the railway had reached the Manchurian border. It ran for several hundred miles close to the Mongolian frontier and thus destroyed the traditional "no-man's land" once for all. By 1900 Russia had occupied Manchuria. Five years later Russia, defeated by Japan, had to quit southern Manchuria and began to covet Mongolia. All these developments took place prior to 1906 and go far to show that the Chinese measures taken in that year were a reaction to and a defense against Russian aggression which had already become manifest. If Mr. Pavlovsky had attended to those developments, he perhaps would not have cherished such a topsy-turvy view of causes and effects as above referred to.

In reference to Soviet policies in Outer Mongolia, Mr. Pavlovsky gives faint praises to Soviet social work there and asserts that the Soviet Union has "brought western civilization (?) to Mongolia". But, with almost the same breath, he refers to the "bitter failure" of Soviet radical reforms in Mongolia in 1922 and to the "catastrophic results" of the Soviet-inspired experiment of collectivizing the Mongolian peasants in 1929-1932, when "more than seven million animals were lost" (Cf. pp. 92-93 and 172).

Other inaccuracies and inconsistencies can be found in the little volume. Great credit, however, should be given to the author for his laborious efforts in gathering materials from innumerable sources and organizing them quite cleverly into a coherent account.

Washington, D. C.

Henry Wei

AUSTIN F. MACDONALD: *Latin American Politics and Government*. (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1949, Pp., ix, 642, \$4.50.)

One of the principal deterrents to the introduction of college courses in Latin-American governments and politics has been the non-existence of a textbook, either in English or in Spanish. The need of an adequate general reference work is particularly pronounced in those schools that have not given special emphasis to Latin-American studies and consequently have limited library resources in the field of Latin-American governments. Under these latter conditions the strongest argument can be ad-

vanced in support of a textbook course. Accordingly, the recently published *Latin American Politics and Government* by Professor Austin F. Macdonald of the University of California appears at an opportune time, and it will be interesting to note to what extent it will give encouragement to the introduction of new courses in Latin-American governments.

This relatively small volume, despite its 600 pages, contains in 23 chapters surveys of "the pattern of politics" and descriptions of "the structure of government" for each of the 20 Latin-American republics. Disproportionate space is devoted to the political background sketches. For example, of the two chapters on Chile, of the three chapters on Argentina, of the three chapters on Mexico, and of the four chapters on Brazil, only one each is devoted to "the structure of government." Since these chapters comprise but 12 pages for Chile, 21 pages for Brazil, and 24 pages each for Argentina and Mexico, this is most inadequate for descriptions of the governments in their various ramifications. The result is a series of artificial and unimaginative outlines of the governments which in most instances carry the reader very little beyond the formal constitutions.

Obviously this is a pioneer work; it merely blazes the trail, pointing the way for more adequate studies to follow. Since the area of Latin-American governments and politics is almost a virgin field which has been scarcely scratched by American scholarship (both Anglo- and Latin-American), there is a great deal of preliminary and fundamental spadework to be done before the time has arrived for more definitive synthesis. It is to be hoped therefore that there will be no inclination to cut corners and make haste too fast, for it is only after the numerous and intricate parts have been fashioned by laborious scholarship that it will be possible to piece together the mosaic of governmental science in the Americas.

In the meantime Professor Macdonald's exploratory work will serve a very useful purpose not only as a textbook for introductory courses, but as a guide and stimulus to needed scholarly production in the broad area of Latin-American governments.

The University of Texas

J. Lloyd Mechem

PHILIP COORTNE : *The Economic Munich*. (New York: Philosophical Library, 1949, Pp., 262, \$3.75.)

The Economic Munich by Philip Cortney fails appreciably to live up to its intriguing title or to the pretensions made for it on its jacket cover. On said paper cover the author is said to present "an array of arguments well-founded, in sound economic theory against inflation

and exchange-controls, and shows their effects on individual freedom. He traces the causes of our wrong economic policies and finds them in the power of economic fallacies due mainly to an inadequate diagnosis of the 1929 depression, to the power of ideas spread by Keynes and, even more so, by some of his befuddled disciples or zealots."

Many economists would welcome further enlightenment on such matters. But the development in this book proves most disappointing and unconvincing. Little organization or progression of thought can be found in it. Only the first 83 pages are devoted to the theme indicated by the title (that the adoption by the United States of the present ITO would mean our "economic Munich"), and much of this is meagrely supported by assertion. The remainder of the book consists of articles written at various times within the past twenty years, with little introduction indicating their pertinency to the subject at hand.

Instead, therefore, of a consistent development of a single theme there is found a cursory treatment of many topics such as: exchange-control, the gold standard, human freedom, high wages, the ideas of Lord Keynes, etc. Granted that all such topics are related, in the sense at least that all things in this world are related to all others, yet the presentation in this book does not leave this reviewer with a consistent picture.

It is doubtful that this volume can prove of much value to economists, except to indicate what is going through the mind of one businessman who also regards himself as a "fellow-economist".

Texas Christian University

Herbert R. Mundhenke

JAMES T. SHOTWELL: *A Balkan Mission*. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1949, Pp., 180, \$2.25.)

In this book the author tells the story of his journey through the Balkans in the autumn of 1925. He had an assignment from the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace to make arrangements in Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, Rumania, Turkey, and Greece for the completion of the *Economic and Social History of the World War* and to meet important personalities in these countries in order to explain and further the work of the Endowment. He made careful notes of his travels during the two months he was in the Balkans, and he kept a record of his public addresses and of his pertinent correspondence. From these sources he has written a charming story that is much more than an interesting travelogue in that it is often interpretive of life and institutions and reveals the author's power of brilliant and clear analysis and understanding of people and events.

Mr. Shotwell is able, of course, to look at some of the subject matter of this book with the advantage of hindsight. However, the extent to

which his observations and conclusions of the time have been borne out by post-1925 events is noteworthy and makes the volume all the more valuable for present-day readers. As one example, he noted that, with independence, the Serbian and Bulgarian peasants took over most of the land, working it in small holdings, 90 per cent of which were under twenty acres in size. He predicted, therefore, that Marxian Communism will have to make compromises with local custom based upon this absolute democracy. The relation to "Titoism" is obvious. On another occasion he made the observation that the method of government that was necessary for Eastern Europe with its sectional and racial divisions was federalism, a form of government that in Europe was appreciated only by the Swiss. He explains the fact that continental governments are conceived primarily in terms of power rather than of cooperation, a consequence owing largely to danger of invasion. From it follows, he notes, that "international peace is an essential not only for the development of freedom but also for efficiency in government." One additional example, of the many good ones, may be given. In noting some remaining traces of United States philanthropy during and immediately after World War I he concludes with this pertinent verdict on our 1919-1939 foreign policies: "If we were only able to act constructively in international politics as we have in international philanthropy!" If he were writing today regarding our post-World War II policies, he might express the hope that we had learned that necessary lesson.

The University of Texas

Charles A. Timm

HENRY J. BROWNE: *The Catholic Church and The Knights of Labor*. (Washington, D. C., Catholic University of America Press, 1949, Pp., 415, \$4.00.)

The definitive history of the Knights of Labor has not as yet been written. When it appears, *The Catholic Church and The Knights of Labor* will prove of great value in so far as the relationship of Knights under the Grand Master, Terence V. Powderly, and the Catholic Church is concerned.

For the secular development of the Knights, a basic understanding of which is necessary, the author admittedly draws on the standard works, especially those of John R. Commons and Norman Ware. Dr. Browne's original contribution lies in the ecclesiastical chapters. Numerous diocesan archives in the United States and in Canada were diligently searched. As a matter of fact, a substantial part of the story has to do with the Knights in Canada as the development of the Noble Order there was a point of contact between the ecclesiastics of Canada and the United States in developing an official attitude towards the 'secret order'. The author's Essay on Sources is particularly illuminating and will greatly benefit any-

one whose interest in early labor history demands a knowledge of ecclesiastical archives.

In revealing the tergiversations of this hierarchical attitude, the author is to be commended for his objectivity. Cognizant of Pope Leo XIII's admonition to Catholic historians to tell the truth fearlessly, Dr. Browne does not hesitate to document the evidence that not a few clerics were, to say the least, coldly receptive to the Knights in their struggle for recognition. The author does not hesitate to state when and where the policy of "masterly inactivity," a term adopted by Cardinal Gibbons of Baltimore, was certainly inactive, but only dubiously masterly.

The opposition, of course, is clear enough in perspective when it is understood how opposed the Catholic Church is to "secret societies," the true nature of which is always an unknown quantity, and especially at the time when Socialism was beginning to make a strong bid to take over the labor movement. Fortunately, Cardinal Gibbons convinced Rome that there was nothing wrong in Catholic workers joining non-religious or "neutral" trade unions which showed no antipathy towards religion. Even though Rome's final decision came when the Knights were losing ground, it was to be of great importance for the entire Catholic Church as well as for the American labor movement.

Due to much minute detail and extensive documentation, much of *The Catholic Church and The Knights of Labor* is of interest only to the specialist in labor history. Perhaps it would have enhanced the value of the book if a summary chapter had concluded the book. However, anyone interested in the Catholic Church and the Knights of Labor will find this book very instructive.

University of San Francisco

George E. Lucy, S. J.

TAYLOR COLE: *The Canadian Bureaucracy: A Study of Canadian Civil Servants and other Public Employees, 1939-1947*. (Durham: N. C., The Duke University Press, 1949, Pp., ix, 292, \$5.00.)

Like many features of the government of Canada, the civil service stands at a mid point between the systems of the United Kingdom and the United States. But unlike others of those features, the Canadian civil service has evoked strangely little interest from professional political scientists. Robert MacGregor Dawson's 1929 study of the *Civil Service of Canada* stands almost alone. Professor Cole's new book will be a welcome addition to the limited literature on the subject.

The subtitle is an accurate description of the book's scope and content, for the author has confined himself to a precisely detailed factual presentation of developments in personnel policy in the civil services of Canada during the war and the immediate post-war period. It treats of

the wartime necessities and expedients in the services of both the dominion and the provinces in respect to the problems of personnel administration: recruitment and promotion, the conditions of employment, the service associations and other related matters. The scope is broadened by the inclusion of a discussion of personnel practices in the crown corporations and the public school system as well as in the ordinary government services. The book does not suffer from its concentration on the war period, for the problems of that period brought into sharp relief the difficulties that the service would have to face in the future and the efforts to solve the wartime problems may well serve as a start toward the development of a service that will be more adequate for peacetime needs.

The author has concluded his investigation with admirable objectivity and has reported the results of his research with candor and impartiality. The work is well documented with sources and authorities that would be difficult to consult except through actual experience with the operating bureaus of the Canadian service; Mr. Cole's scholarship leaves nothing to be desired. He has no ax to grind and no thesis to urge; the book is a straightforward presentation of the facts concerning a limited subject during a limited time. But beyond this it does not go. It is confined to a discussion of the technical problems of personnel administration and never ventures into the more difficult and significant problems of the actual processes of administration and administrative control. There is no discussion of the relation between the political officials and the permanent civil servants. There is no discussion of the Canadian approach to the problem of the place of the expert in modern democratic government. There is very little mention of the conflicts between the French and English Canadians in the government service, an omission that is surprising as well as disappointing in view of the author's concentration upon personnel matters. The book is not concerned with the problems of politics or even with the narrower field of public administration in Canada, but only with the personnel problems of the Canadian civil services.

But within this narrow scope it is excellently done; the author should not be criticized for not doing something that he has not set out to do. *The Canadian Bureaucracy* is an excellent source of information on this subject and substantially increases the fund of materials available to political and social scientists in their consideration of the broader problems of political organization. It is of such books as this that a science of politics is built, but this is not the same thing as saying that this book is a contribution to the building of that science of politics. The author has assembled, examined and collated a number of worth while facts about a limited subject; the comparative study of public administration should profit from his contribution. But we are still awaiting a broad study

of the techniques and problems of public administration as a whole in Canada. The excellence of Mr. Cole's book on the personnel aspects of the service lead us to hope that he will lend his efforts to the preparation of a broader work.

The University of Texas

William S. Livingston

H. MALCOLM MACDONALD, WILFRED D. WEBB, EDWARD G. LEWIS and WILLIAM L. STRAUSS: *Outside Readings in American Government*. (New York: Thos. Y. Crowell Co., 1949, Pp., 854, \$2.75.)

This latest in a long line of readers in American government has several attributes which merit favorable attention. Aside from the usual war-horses of the basic political science course, such as the Federalist Paper No. X and *McCulloch vs. Maryland*, the authors have chosen to include many sparkling accounts of the workings and problems of so-called "practical politics." There is thus made available to the student such materials as an account of the Tennessee "Battle of Athens," descriptions of smoke-filled rooms, a portion of the late Senator Long's famed filibuster, and many effective discussions of the operations of local government units, often neglected in the classroom. The volume's organization is simple and malleable, a compromise between those standard texts which proceed methodically through one level of government to the next, and those which adopt a modified functional approach. A relatively slight amount of chapter juggling should be necessary to bring it in line with most of the courses now offered in this field at the freshman level.

Two editions of the book are available, one containing a supplement limited to specialized material on the government of Texas and designed primarily for use at the University of Texas. References to the state in the text of the regular edition are relatively infrequent, however, and in the opinion of the reviewer do not detract from the volume's general applicability. The continental insularity of the area primarily aimed at by the anthology, on the other hand, may have contributed to its one serious fault, a woefully deficient section on international relations. In only twenty-nine pages, the authors dispose of all the United States' postwar ventures, atomic energy, and the problems of future world relations. On such domestic issues as farm parity payments, the Tennessee Valley Authority, and general government-economy relations, however, the selections are ample, well-chosen, and illustrative of the more important points of view now prevailing.

The fact that the book is paper-bound and meritoriously inexpensive should endear it to the students and encourage their informal browsing through its contents.

Tulane University of La.

K. H. Silvert

JOHN G. GLOVER: *Business Operational Research and Reports*. (New York: American Book Company, 1949, Pp., 299, \$4.00.)

Research is useful to every department and every activity of a business enterprise; so with business research as the central theme, Professor Glover has summarized business administration principles as related to research activities. This takes 179 pages of the book; the remaining 120 pages consist of appendixes and an index.

In the preface it is stated that the book "presents basic procedures for conducting scientific management research and correctly reporting the findings." The preface is followed by two pages which suggest a plan for conducting a course in business research or for supervising the thesis work of graduate students. The author considers research to be one of the factors of production. He states, "The four fundamentals of our industrial production and management are *management, capital, labor, and research . . .*"

Eight chapters comprise the body of the book. The contents of the first three are briefly indicated below.

Management, once regarded as an art, is now regarded as an applied science. It has three levels: administrative (top management), executive, and advisory (staff). Managerial control is exercised through line control and functional control. The chief duty of management is to operate at a profit and maintain economic security. To do this there must be constant progress, and progress is based on research.

Research is not new, but it has received new emphasis in recent years. Business corporations now use it more than ever before on product research, and many are turning to social research.

The steps in research are: first, defining the problem; second, analyzing the problem; third, collecting the facts; fourth, classifying the facts; and fifth, analysis and interpretation of the data. Research must be carried out by properly qualified personnel. The personnel must have adequate equipment, space, and funds.

Chapters four to seven inclusive summarize the problems of organizing and operating a business and indicate the lines along which research is needed.

Each step in the administration of a business enterprise should be based upon adequate information. The establishment of the general policies is the first step; then a business organization must be developed to carry out the general policies; and finally, the organization must be properly operated. Organization research is needed at numerous places in each step.

Each new product brought into the market demands product research

along many lines—name, package, competition, appeal, design, art, legal, etc.

The product or products demand plant capacity. Here again research is needed to determine location, equipment, layout, buildings, power, protection, and various other requirements.

Proper materials, correct amounts, reasonably priced, adequately controlled and accounted for is a business necessity which demands constant research.

Manpower maintenance is becoming more and more complicated. In job analysis, legislative activity, union demands, safety, welfare, training, compensation, promotion, etc., there is need for complete information at every point of decision.

Finally, to continue to make and sell at a profit, management needs constant research over a wide field of marketing activities.

Chapter eight is a brief manual on report writing, somewhat in the nature of a thesis form book.

The appendixes A, B, C, and D, pp. 179-295, contain some very interesting material. They are: "Appropriate Subjects for Research and Study," taken from "An Outline for Making Surveys," *Economic Series No. 34. The Preparation of Reports*, third edition, 1945,—A booklet put out by The Hercules Powder Company.

"Hints to Authors, Preparation of Mss. for The National Industrial Conference Board," and "A Method of Outlining The Academic Research Thesis."

Students who are searching for a topic for a thesis and those in charge of directing graduate study should find the book helpful.

Oklahoma A. and M. College

George B. McCowen

RALPH LINTON (Editor): *Most of the World: The Peoples of Africa, Latin America, and the East Today*. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1949, Pp., 917, \$5.50.)

With the twentieth century half over, we are at last beginning vaguely, but surely, to realize that this is a different century, with its own new and special characteristics, not merely a continuation of the nineteenth. Perhaps we have slow to recognize the change, because we have been reluctant to acknowledge the series of events which mark the end of the era of European domination. All through the nineteenth century Europeans or their immediate descendants have controlled and exploited practically the whole non-European world. It was in truth a golden age for Europe. To this continent flowed the wealth of all the nations in a steady stream, nourishing an unprecedented flowering of civilization and raising

the standard of living for the common man to levels never before dreamed of. It is hard to believe that this happy state of things has now come to an end.

The victory of the Japanese over the Russians in 1906 was the first clear warning that the great masses of the East were beginning to stir. Today with strong separatist movements all over the Orient, the final exit of foreign control is in sight. The rest of the world is successfully asserting itself against the Europeans. Already Europe has had to call upon America for help to avert starvation. It is only a matter of a little time before the European colonial empires will have completely disintegrated.

Most of the World is a timely book, for it deals with that part of the world which is now about to become the most instead of the least important. Mestizo America, Africa, the Near East, India, Southeast Asia, Indonesia, China and Japan are described in a series of twelve chapters, each by a different author. The information presented is encyclopedic, including as it does, geology, geography, demography, history, economics, sociology and anthropology. The authors are experts in their respective fields and so well have they done their work that the book imparts its countless facts with the ease of an absorbing novel. Unlike a novel, however, this is not a work to be consumed in an evening's leisure. There is too much information to be assimilated completely in a single reading. More appropriately the book should be placed on the reference shelf and taken down again and again when any of the areas dealt with may be under consideration.

Because of the wide diversity of the subjects covered and the different approaches employed by the several authors it is difficult to characterize the volume in a sentence. But it may be observed that under the surface there is discernible throughout the implication that the facts here set forth are of more than passing or present interest, that, instead, they give us some notion of the shape of things to come. It is this feature which, it seems to the reviewer, makes *Most of the World* an important book. There is no quarrel with the title, but it could well have *An Introduction to the World of Tomorrow*.

The University of Texas

Carl M. Rosenquist

FRANK E. MANUEL: *The Realities of American-Palestine Relations*. (Washington, D. C., Public Affairs Press, 1949, Pp., 378, \$5.00.)

On the jacket of this work there appears the statement that this book is "a penetrating study throwing new light on recent U. S. policies—based upon official records hitherto held confidential." Those readers who expect a behind-the-scenes account of recent (post 1925) relations

between the U. S. and Palestine will, however, be disappointed. Primary sources, such as State Department files, the reports of U. S. consular officials, the papers of American statesmen, are consulted for the period from the middle of the 19th century until shortly after the First World War. This period also forms the bulk of the book. The period from 1924 to the present is sketched rather superficially and contains essentially no information not hitherto generally available.

Professor Manuel relates in an interesting manner the important role which American consular agents played in Ottoman days in the affairs of the relatively small Jewish community in Palestine. America, as the symbol of opposition to oppression, was the natural power to turn to for help in distress. American consular agents, enjoying considerable powers under the capitulations treaties, were expected to protect all those Jews who could claim U. S. citizenship. But at times the U. S. exerted its influence at the Porte in behalf of the Jews on the basis of a broader humanitarian interest, garbed in legal lingo. This section of the study throws considerable light not only on the affairs of the Jewish settlement in Palestine and the attitude of the U. S. toward it, but also on the workings of the capitulations system. However, one searches in vain for a continuous thread and leaves this part of the book with the feeling that one has been exposed to a lot of information improperly digested.

With the description of the events since the First World War, the scholarly approach gives way a little to a more partisan attitude. Unfortunate expressions, such as "the worthy old preacher, far beyond his depth, produced an amazing hash of political nonsense" in speaking of the Reverend Glazebrook, U. S. consul in Jerusalem, (p.291) or "Bevin blows his top" (p. 329), creep into an otherwise balanced account.

In condemning all those U. S. and British policy makers and influencers who opposed Zionism in toto or certain aspects thereof, Professor Manuel, however, deals with the problem in too simple a fashion. One cannot reject so easily the contention that there existed broader issues which might have prevented those policy makers from giving their full support to the Zionist cause. It seems to this reviewer at least, that one of the serious weaknesses of the Zionists has always been the fact that they have refused to look at their movement in terms of a larger frame of reference. Zionism is a nationalist movement, a fact which is aptly demonstrated by Chaim Weizmann in his *Trial and Error*. Like other such movements it has its credo which surrounds its material objectives with an aura of sanctity. Unlike other movements it possessed a ready-made messianic religious overtone. The global dispersal of the Jews also obscured the similarities with other nationalist movements. It is of course an inherent characteristic of every nationalistic movement to consider its own case

as unique and hence as possessing a monopoly of moral sanctity. This nation-centricity leads to the unfortunate refusal to consider the legitimate merits of other nationalist movements, such as in this case, the Arab movements. When Wilson and Roosevelt considered the merits of those movements, that cannot be simply dismissed as evidence of their momentarily falling prey to anti-Zionist or anti-Semitic influences, but should be ascribed to their realization that Zionism forms only part of a much larger picture of a world in which all peoples should be able to attain the highest degree of political self-expression. If, on the other hand, the Zionists refuse to recognize the moral rights of others, then the contest becomes one of power exclusively, and it should at least be admitted to be such.

Regardless of how one may feel about Zionism, Professor Manuel's book constitutes a useful addition to the literature on the diplomacy of the Near East.

University of Connecticut

Curt F. Beck

AUGUST B. HOLLINGSHEAD: *Elmtown's Youth*. (New York: John Wiley and Son Inc., 1949, Pp., 475, \$5.00.)

This volume is a study made under the auspices of the Committee on Human Development of the University of Chicago. It deals with the way the social system of a Middle Western Corn Belt Community, Elmtown, (any American Community of approximately 6,000 people, time 1941-1942) organizes and controls the behavior of its high-school-age adolescents.

Although the book is primarily a scientific report, it is presented in a style which enables the layman to read it without difficulty. In fact, Professor Hollingshead had in mind, when writing the book, a twofold purpose: to provide the scientist with valid, factual material about adolescent behavior, and, at the same time, to acquaint the great American audience of parents with the kind of society in which they are rearing their children.

The story of the book is derived from two sources: statistics and the stories of the boys and girls and the men and women of Elmtown.

The investigator found from Elmtowner's own analysis that the community was stratified into five social classes and that behavior was associated with class. Seven areas of social behavior were covered in the study—the school, the job, the church, recreation, cliques, dates, and sex. The facts indicated a close relationship existing between the behavior patterns of the adolescent boys and girls and the positions occupied by their families in the Community's class structure. It was found that behavior patterns are primarily the result of experiences derived

from the family and neighborhood, and that these experiences tend to mold children into social types associated with class. The facts clearly show that the home an adolescent comes from conditions in a very definite manner the way he behaves in his relation with the school, the church, the job, recreation, his peers, and his family.

Striking difference in opportunities open to children from the five classes of Elmtown are revealed by the facts. It is shown that the ideals in the democratic creed of official America are being compromised by the operation of the class system in the school, the church, the lodge, the economic system, recreation, and leisure time.

The control of the institutional functions in the interest of individuals of wealth, prestige, and power, justified as being in the interest of the people, is generally accepted without question by a majority of people of Elmtown. The acceptance of this view by Elmtowners hinders the development of a program to re-orient the schools, the Girl Scouts, the Boy Scouts, the churches, and other institutions in the interest of all adolescents. It also guarantees the perpetuation into an indefinite future the continuation of the class system and its inequalities as a contradiction of the American ideal of democracy.

The book represents a genuine contribution, not only in substantiating the hypothesis that "the social behavior of adolescents appears to be related functionally to the positions their families occupy in the social structure of the community," but it throws out a challenge and a warning to those interested in America as a democratic country.

Texas State College for Women

Mattie Lloyd Wooten

LOGAN WILSON and WILLIAM L. KOLB: *Sociological Analysis: An Introductory Text and Case Book* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1949, Pp., 866, \$4.50.)

ALFRED McCLUNG LEE and ELIZABETH BRIANT LEE: *Social Problems in America: A Source Book* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1949, Pp., 741, \$4.00.)

These complementary texts on *Sociological Analysis* and *Social Problems* are correctly assigned for the same review. In *Sociological Analysis*, Wilson and Kolb have presented an excellent source book for the first half of introductory sociology, and in *Social Problems in America*, Lee and Lee have done the same thing for the second half of the introductory course.

Sociological Analysis is well-planned and full of well-chosen selections from outstanding scholars in the sociological field. It is divided into seven parts, preceded by an introduction to sociology as a science. The seven

main divisions of the work consider the cultural backgrounds of social life, personality and social structure, the basic aspects of social relations, social differentiation and stratification, the institutional and associational structures of community and nation, social interaction, and social disorganization and social change. Chapters on the cultural backgrounds of social life are about the nature of culture, cultural change, and cultural variability. Chapters on personality and the social structure are about original nature, the socialization of personality, social roles, and the social aspects of personality disorganization. Under basic aspects of social relations, there are selections on social relations and the social group, collective behavior, societies-communal and associational types, and societies-demographic and ecological elements. Selections on social differentiation and stratification include subjects under social classes in community and nation and ethnic aspects of social stratification. Those on the institutional and associational structures of community and nation discuss various aspects of political, economic, family, educational, and religious organization. The concept of social interaction is treated under two headings—conjunctive and disjunctive social processes. The final section on social disorganization and social change considers the disorganization of society as aspects of contemporary change. The authors launch every chapter in the book with a discussion of basic concepts and problems, and write an introduction to each part in the treatise.

The book by Lee and Lee is apparently somewhat less well-planned than the Wilson-Kolb volume. The selections are more fragmentary, and the writers are more journalistic, but they do include some outstanding scholars as well as current politicians. To this reviewer the book is highly interesting. Parts I to VIII consider perspectives, man and land, life-history problems, institutional problems, individual and group deviations, problems of social division, social crises, and processes and techniques of adjustment. Under perspectives there are selections on the nature of the social problem, disorganization, and societal change. The selections under man and land are about physical resources, population problems, and urban and rural problems. Life-history problems are considered as birth, infancy, childhood, youth, courtship, adult sex roles and the family, physical illness, age, and death. Institutional problems discussed are educational, economic, political, communicational, and recreational. The individual and group deviations are outlined as injuries, accidents, physical handicaps, mental deficiencies, mental diseases, delinquency, crime, leaders and geniuses. Under problems of social division appear selections on class and status, caste and race, and ethnic differences. The social crises are depressions, inflations, catastrophes, riots, and wars. The processes and techniques of adjustment include social work and social action, and the relation of social science to social policy.

These works are primarily source books, but they could be used very satisfactorily as texts. Personally I should prefer to make a dozen of each available to my students in the library and put a somewhat more conventional text into the hands of my individual students. Each of these books, however, is a valuable contribution to the student of sociology in college. Graduate students will find Wilson and Kolb's *Sociological Analysis* very helpful.

Texas Christian University

Austin L. Porterfield

JOSEPH SHISTER: *Economics of the Labor Market*. (Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1949, Pp., 590, \$4.50.)

The title of this volume is misleading. The author goes outside the economics of the labor market and into the social, psychological, historical, and political aspects of the labor market for some two-thirds the length of the book. He justifies including these under the title of "economics" on the grounds that they provide the necessary institutional setting for economic analysis of labor problems. Economics should by all means draw upon and be supplemented by the other social sciences, and this is particularly necessary in analyzing the labor movement. However, application of the term "economics" to this book borders on "economic imperialism."

With the exception of Part Three, the book covers the conventional range of topics presented in other books on labor problems. Part One is a factual survey of the labor force—its composition, size, and distribution. Professor Shister reaches the not too startling conclusions that the labor force is "distributed in different occupations and different industries in varying proportions." Its over all size varies little in the short run, and, in the long run, its size "changes mainly as a result of absolute changes in the total population."

Part Two deals with the institutions of the labor force. It covers determinants of trade-union growth, history of unionism, trade-union structure and government, basic forces underlying bargaining policies, union wage policies and practices, union non-wage policies and practices, management policies in dealing with both organized and unorganized labor, governmental influences on collective bargaining, and governmental influences on individual workers through social legislation. These are competently handled in most respects; however, conclusions presented as to the economics of certain union policies leave this reviewer uneasy. Some examples are: "under certain circumstances, output control may well be socially beneficial," and "In many instances a shortening of hours will increase productivity per man-hour; and in some of these even *total output per week* may be increased." In context, the implication is that the former example is quite important quantitatively. While the second

example *may* have been the case when hours per week were reduced from 60 to 70 to 40 and 50, it seems unlikely that further reductions would give the implied results.

Part Three purports to analyze the operation of the labor market in economic terms. A well rounded discussion of marginal productivity theory opens the section, followed by two basic criticisms of the theory. First, Shister attacks the assumption of profit maximization as the objective of the entrepreneur and concludes that other objectives may result in wage rates unequal to the marginal revenue product of labor. Second, he concludes that labor is not mobile—even within local labor markets—and, therefore the emphasis placed by marginalists on differential wage rates as the basic factor in labor allocation is unwarranted. He thus makes wage rates unimportant with regard to (1) determination of the level of employment and (2) proper allocation of labor in the economy. The door is now wide open for trade-union wage activities. According to Shister, their adverse effects, if any, will be small.

In analyzing the volume of employment, Shister points up seasonal, cyclical, and technological unemployment and means of mitigating these. Consistent with his analysis of wages, the general wage level is not considered to be an important factor in the total volume of employment. Indeed, he concludes that maintenance of, or an increase in, wages on the downswing of the business cycle will tend to prevent business men from losing confidence and will lead them to maintain a higher level of employment than would otherwise be the case! He correctly concludes that wage policies alone are inadequate to mitigate business fluctuations, and plays up government fiscal policy as the appropriate remedy. For some unknown reason he disregards government monetary policy entirely.

The concluding part of the book points toward greater governmental intervention in the economic affairs of the nation as the means of solving some of labors' problems. Shister recognizes the inadequacy of labor unions to solve many of these. However, beyond placing responsibility on the government for maintaining full employment and for mitigating to some extent inequalities of income distribution, no concrete proposals are made.

On the whole, this is not a bad labor problems book despite some defects of style. Shister's ventures into the economics of labor in the last third of the book are commendable and certainly represent steps forward in the evaluation of the impact of the labor movement on the economy, even though this reviewer cannot agree with a considerable part of his analysis.

Oklahoma A. & M.

Richard H. Leftwich

MARTIN J. HILLENBRAND: *Power and Morals*. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1949, Pp., 217, \$3.25.)

FRANCIS D. WORMUTH: *The Orgins of Modern Constitutionalism*. (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949, Pp., 243, \$3.00.)

Two books have recently appeared which are of considerable interest to students of political theory. The first of these, *Power and Morals* by Martin J. Hillenbrand, is a persuasive statement of the case for a return to a natural law theory as a basis for government. With the authors main thesis, that some standard external to the state must be admitted if political power is ever to be controlled and individual liberties and rights safeguarded, this reviewer finds himself in full agreement. The chapters in the work which deal with this problem are capably and interestingly written, especially the introductory section which deals with the failure of contemporary theories of state power to produce satisfactory and lasting solutions. The weakness of the work lies, as is the case in all theories of this type, in the difficulty of determining the content of the proposed external standard and of making it operational in the modern world. In an age of materialism and skepticism like our own, the act of faith required to gain general acceptance of a system of universal norms is difficult to attain. The weakest chapter in the book is the one which deals with this problem under the title "Natural Law for the Twentieth Century." Although the author is persuasive, one still feels a sense of unreality at the conclusion of the statement of his case. While admitting the validity of the author's thesis, its practicality as a matter of every day politics in the Twentieth Century remains still to be proved. Nevertheless, the book focuses attention on an important ethical and political problem, and does it in an unpedantic and stimulating way. All students of government will find the book well worth reading and pondering over.

The second work by Francis D. Wormuth entitled *The Origins of Modern Constitutionalism* is more specialized in its scope. The title is misleading since, except for the Introduction, it deals with the constitutional theories and problems of the Cromwellian Interregnum. As a matter of fact, the treatment even of this limited field is somewhat disjointed and breaks down with a series of uncorollated essays on such problems as Mixed Monarchy, Republicanism, Separation of Powers, James Harrington, the Rule of Law, etc., all of which are given a semblance of unity only by virtue of the fact that they deal with the same historic period. Prescinding from this to an analysis of these individual chapters, one finds in them a wealth of material plus suggestive observations which stimulate and hold the reader's attention. Professor Wormuth's treatment of Separation of Powers, to take one example, is a masterpiece of analysis and interpretation. It is in chapters of this kind that the author is at his best, and the rewards to the reader at their highest. In this respect the work is

by a scholar for the scholars for it presumes more than a layman's acquaintance with the period, and the subtleties of Professor Wormuth's analysis and interpretation will escape the casual reader. *The Origins of Modern Constitutionalism* is an important and suggestive book and deserves careful attention from those working in the period.

Both Harper and Brothers and the Columbia Press deserve commendation for publishing significant books of this type. For too long the monopoly of scholarly publications had been in the hands of English houses and the appearance of these two books under the auspices of American publishers marks, it is to be hoped, the beginning of a trend towards American publication of "prestige" works.

The University of Texas

H. Malcolm Macdonald

PAUL H. APPLEBY: *Policy and Administration*, (University, Alabama: University of Alabama Press, 1949, Pp., 173, \$2.50.)

In *Policy and Administration* Dean Paul H. Appleby elaborates upon the political nature of public administration introduced in his earlier *Big Democracy* (1935). The two volumes present clearly his philosophy of public administration, a philosophy developed through years of study and actual participation in administrative processes.

A half century ago in *Politics and Administration* Frank J. Goodnow discussed the impact of politics upon public administration. To Goodnow politics was partisan politics and the political party the coordinating agency of control in a system of separation of powers. Appleby distinguishes between partisan politics and policy formation. To him public administration is political, but in a broader policy-forming sense.

"Public administration is policy-making". (p. 169) "Administrative hierarchy is an organ receiving messages of popular demands, many of them contradictory. It is an organ responding to such demands, reconciling them, and in the course of response injecting considerations of prejudice, perspective, and principle . . . All this is a political process, much of it completed within the area of administration." (p. 92) "The functions of top-level administrators are 'more political' than the functions of lower-level administrators." (p. 50) "Political efficiency is the final criterion of every aspect of government, and the ability of our government to shift position in accord with changes in social needs and sentiments has much more to do with our social efficiency than any engineering measurements of any administrative processes." (p.131)

Using the terms of scientific management, Dean Appleby insists that public administration is not scientific, but is management with a political emphasis. He sees administration as a gigantic cooperative undertaking involving congress, the president, the courts, the citizen and administra-

tion. In this complex system administration by necessity is the coordinator, congress and the political party having largely failed.

Granting the validity of Dean Appleby's observation, it gives very little consolation to those desiring a more responsible system. Even though many administrators are sensitive to popular demands administrative-government is not popular government. It would seem that the interests of the citizen would be better protected were they to realize the potentialities of the political party as an instrument with which to attain their ends. *Policy and Administration* inadvertently supplies evidence enough for the need to strengthen party control.

Boston University

Lashley G. Harvey

EDWIN R. EMBREE and JULIA WAXMAN: *Investment in People*. (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949, Pp., 291, \$3.00.)

This is the story of the Julius Rosenwald Fund: The man who built it, the men who ran it, what they did. It is no grey obituary; neither is it a case for the Fund. Edwin Embree would have no part in such! What the Fund did is related to the design of development in the foundation movement. The Fund always was an agency to help people approach sanctioned goals. Always the prime emphasis was on people. Then, *goals*. The Fund was always an agency; never an end. There is novelty in this.

A long time ago I was told, "Most foundations are willing only to water well-rooted trees; the Rosenwald Fund wants to find the seeds!" In essence, this was true. But, the Fund always screened the seeds it found! Mr. Embree's direction was ever based on strong convictions on the role of an agency committed to the use of great wealth for the well-being of mankind. Perhaps his stand was unconventional in foundation circles. The more, the better! It was always fresh, enthusiastic, sincere, purposive—and acute. Those empowered to give meet many grifters. People who have dealt with Mr. Embree can testify that there always came a time for facts and common sense. He usually could spot a promoting grifter from a country mile! Fellows of the Fund, twenty-four full pages of them listed, and many, many others can add their personal testimony!

The fund is bound to loom larger in a review like this than it appeared in operation. Here is a great value in this testament. People who walked in at 4901 Ellis Avenue, Chicago, to talk with Mr. Embree, Dr. Bousfield, or Miss Elvidge never got a fraction of it; those who read the Fund's letters in Oxford, Mississippi, or Prairie View, Texas, saw less. The Fund developed over a quarter of a century in its work in education and race relations and health: *these things always through investment in people*. Ralph Bunche, Percy L. Julian, Katherine Dunham, Marian Anderson, Charles S. Johnson, Rupert Vence, Lillian Smith, Robert Walton, Vann

Woodward, Lynn Smith. There were others, too, who today are as unknown as most of these people were when they were "Fellows of the Fund." They will be unknown tomorrow. In the spirit of the Fund, that's quite as it should be: eminence was not necessarily a goal; service toward "the well-being of mankind" by one's own good talents always was.

Oklahoma A. and M. College

Paul B. Foreman

COLSTON E. WARNE, and KATHERINE DU PRE LUMPKIN, (Editors): *Labor in Postwar America*; (New York: Remsen Press, 1949, Pp., 200, \$10.00.)

Associated with Dr. Warne and Dr. Lumpkin on the Board of Editors of this book are Dorothy W. Douglas, Everett C. Hawkins, Lois MacDonald and Emanuel Stein. Thirty-five specialists participated in the actual writing of this cooperative venture. These include not only academicians, drawn from a large number of colleges and universities, but also a wide selection of government economists. Both by the test of professional standing and present performance the participants establish themselves as thoroughly competent to discharge the task undertaken.

This task involves the interpretation of "the major developments in the field of industrial relations since V-J Day." It carries forward the Institute of Labor Studies project begun in 1945 with the publication of *War Labor Policies*. Like the earlier volume, *Labor in Postwar America* is designed to serve as a yearbook of American labor. It covers the difficult postwar adjustment years 1945 to 1947. The short period of time considered insures intensive treatment of each topic. The length of the book and the multiplicity of authors permits a comprehensive discussion of the entire field of labor developments. The editors have carefully planned the year-book so that no important phase of the subject would be omitted.

Part I reviews the general postwar setting as it affected the worker. This includes a consideration of the decontrol of wages and prices and development in the field of union agreements, employer policies and union policies. Part II contains an historical review of labor conditions and price trends during the two year period. The third section of the book recounts labor legislation developments, devoting a separate discussion to each field. Labor relations in each of the key industries are taken up in Part IV. In the fifth division labor problems are discussed as they effect special groups, such as women workers, children, farm labor, etc.

This organization is designed to produce a comprehensive year-book for reference purposes, but necessarily results in considerable repetition. Few generalizations may be made regarding the quality of style in a work with so many authors. The articles are straight-forward and objective

presentations of the facts relevant to the subject under discussion. While the standard of objectivity seems rather uniform throughout the book, the willingness of the authors to draw conclusions from the facts presented varies with the temperament of the particular writer.

In the opinion of the reviewer no labor economist or first class library can afford to be without this valuable source book.

North Texas State College

Sam B. Barton

VLADIMIR GSOVSKI: *Soviet Civil Law: Private Rights and Their Background Under the Soviet Regime*. Vol. II, Translation. (Forward by Hessel E. Yntema.) (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Law School, 1949, Pp., 907, \$10.00.)

This is the second volume of Vladimir Gsovski's treatise on *Soviet Civil Law*, the first volume of which was reviewed in the September number of this Quarterly. The present volume consists of a translation of the Soviet Codes dealing with private rights. In addition to the translations the editor has introduced frequent explanatory comments and notes into the text which serve to relate the present law of the Soviet regime to the former Imperial law, and also to indicate revisions and statutory changes which have been effected since the promulgation of the codes. A valuable list in translation of Russian works and periodicals dealing with private law problems is included, as well as a useful table of Soviet statutes and cases. The value of this publication cannot be over-estimated, and it is an indispensable tool for all persons working in the fields of Russian affairs and comparative jurisprudence. When taken in conjunction with Volume One, a scholarly and well rounded picture of Soviet legal development in the area of private law is made available for the first time to English speaking scholars. The Author and the Michigan Law School are to be congratulated on the production of a scholarly and significant contribution of permanent value to lawyers and laymen alike.

The University of Texas

H. Malcolm Macdonald

Other Books Received

- Anderson, L. F.: *A Debt Manual for Texas Cities*. (Austin, Texas, Bureau of Municipal Research, University of Texas, 1949, Pp., 56, \$1.00.)
- Blodgett, W. T.: *Salaries and Wages of Municipal Employees in Texas*. (Austin, Texas, Bureau of Municipal Research, University of Texas and League of Texas Municipalities, 1949, Pp., 120.)
- Briscoe, V., Martin, J. W., and Reeves, J. E.: *Safeguarding Kentucky's Resources*. (Lexington, Kentucky, Bureau of Business Research, University of Kentucky, 1948, Pp. 224.)
- Browne, V. J.: *The Control of the Public Press*. (Washington, D. C., Public Affairs Press, 1949, Pp., 174, \$2.75.)
- Commonwealth of Kentucky: *A Retirement System for Kentucky State Employees*. (Anchorage, Kentucky, Legislative Research Commission, 1949, Pp., 86.)
- Davie, M. R.: *Negroes In American Society*. (New York, McGraw-Hill Co., 1949, Pp., 542, \$4.50.)
- Davis, Kingsley: *Human Society*. (New York, MacMillan Co., 1949, Pp., 655, \$4.25.)
- Eduardo, Oda C.: *The Negro In Northern Brazil*. (New York, J. T. Augustine Publishing Co., 1949, Pp., 131, \$2.75.)
- Egger, R. and Cooper, W.: *Research, Education and Regionalism*. (Tuscaloosa, Alabama, Bureau of Public Administration, University of Alabama, 1949, Pp., 234.)
- Filmer, Robert: *Patriarcha and Other Political Writings*. (Edited by Peter Laslett.) (New York, MacMillan Co. 1949, 326 Pp., \$2.75.)
- Foscue, E. J. and Quam, L. O.: *Estes Park*, (Dallas, University Press, 1949, Pp., 98, \$2.00.)
- Gagliardo, D.: *American Social Insurance*. (New York, Harper and Bros., 1949, Pp., 671, \$5.00.)
- Gard, Wayne: *Frontier Justice*. (Norman, Oklahoma, University of Oklahoma Press, 1949, Pp., 324, \$3.75.)
- Garrett, Helen: *When Shall We Begin Reading?* (New York, University of the State of New York, 1949, Pp., 50.)
- Hill, Ruben: *Families Under Stress*. (New York, Harper and Bros., 1949, Pp., 443, \$4.50.)
- Hoskins, H. L.: *The Atlantic Poet*. (Washington, D. C., Public Affairs Press, 1949, Pp., 104, \$2.50.)

- Key, V. O.: *Southern Politics*. (New York, Alfred A. Knopf Co., 1949, Pp., 675, \$6.00.)
- Kohn, Hans: *The Twentieth Century*. (New York, MacMillan Co., 1949, Pp., 242, \$2.50.)
- Landis, B. Y.: *Rural Welfare Services*. (New York, Columbia University Press, 1949, Pp., 201, \$3.00.)
- Lawson, R. C. (Ed.): *How Can We The People Achieve A Just Peace?* (Selected Speeches Mt. Holyoke College Institute on the U. N.) (South Hadley, Mass., 1949, Pp., 253, \$2.00.)
- MacArthur, K. W.: *The Bible and Human Rights*. (New York, The Woman's Press, 1949, Pp., 94, \$2.00.)
- Mason, A. T.: *Free Government In The Making*. (New York, Oxford University Press, 1949, Pp., 846, \$6.00.)
- Matherly, A. M.: *Kentucky State Purchasing*. (Lexington, Kentucky, University of Kentucky Press, 1948, Pp., 61, \$.50.)
- Nelson, William (Ed.): *Out of the Crocodile's Mouth*. (Washington, D. C., Public Affairs Press, 1949, Pp., 116, \$2.50.)
- Nordyke, Lewis: *Cattle Empire, The Fabulous Story of the 3,000,000 Acre Xit*. (New York, William Morrow & Co., 1949, Pp., 273, \$4.00.)
- Ohlin, Bertil: *The Problem of Employment Stabilization*. (New York, Columbia University Press, 1949, Pp., 173, \$2.75.)
- Pardue, B. L.: *State Supervision of the Property Tax Assessments In Kentucky*. (Lexington, Kentucky, University of Kentucky Press, 1948, Pp., 67, \$.50.)
- Plamenatz, J.: *The English Utilitarians*. (New York, MacMillan Co., 1949, Pp., 228, \$2.25.)
- Pribram, Karl: *Conflicting Patterns of Thought*. (Washington, D. C., Public Affairs Press, 1949, Pp., 176, \$3.25.)
- Rosow, J. M. (Ed.): *American Men In Government*. (Washington, D. C., Public Affairs Press, 1949, Pp. 472, \$7.50.)
- Rossi, A.: *A Communist Party In Action*. (New Haven, Conn., Yale University Press, 1949, Pp., 301, \$4.00.)
- Smith, M. W.: *Indians of the Urban Northwest*. (New York, Columbia University Press, 1949, Pp., 370, \$6.00.)
- Stokes, A. P.: *Negro Status and Race Relations In U. S. 1911-1946*. (New York, Phelps-Stokes Fund, 1948, Pp., 217, \$1.50.)

- Teeters, N. K.: *Deliberations of the International Penal and Penitentiary Congresses, 1872-1935*. (Philadelphia, Temple University Book Store, 1949, Pp., 198.)
- Teggart, F. J. and Hildebrand, C. H.: *The Idea of Progress, A Collection of Readings*. (Berkeley, California, University of California Press, 1949, Pp., 450, \$6.00.)
- Vaughan, E. H.: *Community Under Stress*. (Princeton, New Jersey, Princeton University Press, 1949, Pp., 160, \$2.50.)
- Viereck, D.: *Conservatism Revisited*. (New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1949, Pp., 187, \$2.50.)
- Wendell, Mitchell: *Relations Between The Federal and State Courts*. (New York, Columbia University Press, 1949, Pp., 298, \$4.00.)
- Wythe, George: *Industry in Latin America*. (New York, Columbia University Press, 1949, Pp., 387, \$5.00.)
- Young, K.: *Sociology: A Study In Society and Culture* (2nd Ed.) (New York, American Book Co., 1949, Pp., 638.)

APPLICATION FOR MEMBERSHIP

GEORGE T. WALKER
NORTHWESTERN STATE COLLEGE
NATCHITOCHES, LOUISIANA

DEAR SIR:

I should like to become a member of the Southwestern Social Science Association. Please enter my name on the mailing list for the Quarterly.

_____ I enclose three dollars for one year's subscription.

_____ Please bill me for three dollars for one year's subscription.

(Signature)

(Mailing Address)

News Notes

Correction. The dates of the 1950 convention of the Southwestern Social Science Association were given by error in the September issue as Friday and Saturday, April 8 and 9. The correct dates are Friday and Saturday, April 7 and 8. Members who may have made hotel reservations on the basis of the erroneous notice should ask that the correct dates be substituted. The Rice Hotel, Houston, Texas, has been designated as the convention hotel.

A City Managers' Short Course will be conducted January 9-13, 1950, on the campus of the University of Oklahoma, under the auspices of the Educational Committee of the Oklahoma Municipal League and the Extension Division of the University. H. V. Thornton, professor of government, John Freeman, director of short courses, represented the University in the planning committee; City Managers Ross Taylor, Enid; E. E. Jones, Shawnee, and John Hall, Muskogee, represented the League. Participants in the programs will include the above and City Manager John Hamman and Mr. Owen Vaughn, both of Chickasha, Oklahoma. The course is intended as a pioneering step toward the objective of promoting the professional character of the career of City Manager.

Hugo Wall, chairman of the department of political science, Municipal University of Wichita, is conducting a course in the theory of public administration for the city manager and other officers and employees of the city government of Wichita. The same department reports a teaching project involving a political scoreboard of votes on key issues in Congress by Kansas senators and representatives. The scoreboard is revised weekly and supplemented by mimeographed bulletins explaining the issues, with all political science students tested at regular intervals on the information.

Edward E. Kern, graduate student and Research Assistant in the Department of Agricultural Economics of the Louisiana State University has accepted a position as Assistant Professor in the Department of Agricultural Economics at the College of Agriculture in Mississippi and will report for duty on January 1, 1950.

Marshall E. Miller, graduate student and Research Associate in the Department of Agricultural Economics, Louisiana State University has accepted a position with the Sugar Section of the Production and Marketing Administration in Washington and will report for duty on February 1, 1950.